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ABSTRACT

This document contains the following papers on practical applications of research on adult and continuing education: "Elderly Criminal Behavior: Linking Research to Practice," by Donald J. Bachand and Carl I. Brahm; "Father? Teacher? Friend? Instructor-Student Relationships in a Refugee Class," by Gary J. Bekker; "The Small Group: Understanding Its Educational Potential," "Trust in Groups: The Great Mother and Transformative Education," by Robert D. Boyd; "The Adult Learner and Microcomputer Manuals," by Allen Brue and Trenton R. Ferro; "Strategies for Educating Parents as Advocates for Public School Reform," by Suzanne Davenport; "Teacher-Generated Load: An Application of Howard Yale McClusky's Concept of Margin," by Michael Day and Jim James; "The Relationship of Teacher Psychosocial Behavior to Significant Learning in Ten Adult Instructional Groups," and "Science and Art as Guiding Metaphors in the Clinical Curriculum," by John M. Dirkx; "The Continuing Education of Clergy: A Review of the Literature," and "A Planning and Evaluation Model for Parish Programs," by Trenton R. Ferro; "Literacy and Aging," by James C. Fisher; "Adult Returning Students: Barriers to Learning Persistence and Withdrawal," by Daniele D. Flannery; "Beyond Relevance: Math as Inquiry for Specially Challenged Adults," by James Steele Foerch; "Commitment to Adult Education: How Can We Increase It?" by Laverne B. Forest; "Educational Needs of Hispanics in the Lansing, Michigan, Area: A Survey," by Carmen Gonzalez; "Methodological Issue: How Adult Learning Development Might Be Discovered," by Gail Kara; "The Impact of Staff Development/Adult Education Activities on Programs for Young Children," by Joseph Lapidis; "Social Networks among Returning Women Students Enrolled in an Urban Community College Nursing Program," by Virginia McBride; "Transitional Experiences as Experimentalists Utilize Naturalistic Research Methods," by James H. McElhinney; "Women and Individuation: How Goddess Images Shape Lives," by Jean Saul Rannells; "Qualitative Methodology in the Study of Experiential Learning: A Study of Community Leadership Development," by Boyd E. Rossing; "A Study of Psychosocial Factors Related to Assuming Responsibility for Work-Related Self-Directed Learning," by Charlene A. Sexton; "Towards a New Paradigm for Translating Theory into Practice," by Howard A. Smith and Ximena Zuniga; "Adult 'Educations': Empowering the Theory and Practice of Person," by Sherman M. Stanage; "Mentoring in the Career Development of Illinois Community College Presidents," by Thomas K. Thomas; and "How Adult Educators Learn to Teach," by Elizabeth B. Williams. References are included in the papers. (KC)

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Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Midwest Research-To-Practice Conference in Adult and Continuing Education

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Ann Arbor, Michigan**

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The Conference Steering Committee is most appreciative of the expert assistance provided by Glenda Radine and her staff of the Conference Department of the University of Michigan Extension Service. They were responsible for coordinating the Conference and their assistance was invaluable.

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PREFACE

The papers which appear in this set of proceedings reflect the rich diversity of research and practice evident throughout the field of adult and continuing education. A field as diverse as ours inevitably produces research which attempts to respond to important questions from a variety of perspectives -- perspectives that raise many more questions as answers are sought and findings are reported.

Because both academic adult education and field-based practice are not constrained by the artificial modalities of a narrow discipline, the presenters at this conference are able to cast their intellectual efforts across many topical boundaries. Few of the significant issues confronting the field today escape scrutiny. And several of the most enduring and vexing research/practice concerns are examined with fresh and unusual approaches.

You will find here much to reflect on. If your interests are in things administrative; or in teaching and learning; or directed to special populations; or to theory and research design; all, and more, are addressed by the contributors to this volume.

L. S. Berlin

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ELDERLY CRIMINAL BEHAVIOR:
LINKING RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

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ELDERLY CRIMINAL BEHAVIOR:

LINKING RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

Introduction

Several studies point to a trend of increased criminal activity by older persons. Although elderly offenders account for less than 4 percent of the arrests made annually in the United States, sociologists, and more recently gerontologists, have identified this trend as an "emergent social problem" (Shichor, 1978; Feinberg, 1982; Bachand, 1984; Newman and Gewirtz, 1984). This paper will examine the recent research that has focused on elderly criminal behavior and how the criminal justice system has responded to this phenomenon. The research findings are used in developing a Continuing Education Intervention Approach (CEIA) aimed at preventing and appropriately responding to increased criminal activity by older Americans.

Arrest Trends

Every indication shows that traditional crimes perpetrated by elderly persons (aged 55 plus) in the United States are increasing. For example, Shichor and Kobrin (1978) reported that arrests for felony offenses have increased by 224 percent among the elderly population during the eleven-year period, 1964-1974, compared with an increase of 43 percent for all age groups (Shichor and Kobrin, 1978). Bachand (1984) compared arrests to population growth in the United States and Michigan. The findings revealed a significant proportional increase in the number of persons (aged 55 plus) arrested for serious offenses during the period 1971-1980. While the elderly population in the United States and Michigan grew 22.2 percent and 18.4 percent, respectively, the total number of elderly persons arrested increased 188 percent nationally and 199.4 percent in Michigan (Bachand, 1984). National crime statistics for 1980 indicate persons age 55 and over were arrested for nearly 800 homicides, 3,800 sexual offenses, and 20,000 assaults. After arrests for drunkenness and drunken driving, elderly persons are most likely to be arrested for theft. The total number of older persons arrested for all crimes in 1980 exceeded 378,000 (UCR, 1980).

Unreported Elderly Crime

Most of the data used in identifying trends in criminal activity and arrest trends among various age groups is derived from the Federal Bureau of Investigation's Uniform Crime Reports. Undoubtedly, these statistics are not complete and therefore are not completely accurate. For example, a person could be observed shoplifting, be arrested, and then be warned and released prior to formally being charged with a crime. Although technically arrested, the fact that the case was disposed of "informally," most often would result in the arrest not being officially recorded as an arrest statistic. Thus, if a particular age group was afforded lenient treatment by police during the arrest phase of the criminal justice process, it would result in deflated arrest statistics for that age group of offenders. There is evidence that both the police and store security personnel afford elderly persons lenient or preferential treatment in arrest situations.

Schafer, for example, contends that the elderly may be more skilled in perpetrating crimes, avoiding risks, and protecting against detection, all of which depress elderly arrest statistics (Schafer, 1976). Still others argue that the greater prestige of the elderly in our society as compared to juveniles protects them against official arrest (Cressey, 1966).

The literature review concerning police discretion during arrests, coupled with numerous interviews with police, prosecutors, and store security personnel conducted over the last three years, strongly suggest that elderly suspects are more often given the benefit of the doubt in arrest situations. In terms of situational factors influencing arrests, the following observations are made:

- 1) Elderly offenders will be arrested less often for law violations if their criminal activity is concentrated in less serious crime categories. (Exception: drunken driving offenses)
- 2) The elderly offender's age, combined with a respectful attitude toward police, will result in lower arrest rates.
- 3) Elderly shoplifters will be arrested less often because store security personnel generally do not consider elderly persons as prime candidates for theft of goods and materials.
- 4) Elderly offenders will be afforded preferential treatment in most arrest situations where there is evidence that they are destitute, seriously ill, or perceived to be mentally ill. (Bachand, 1984b)

Although few people would argue with the idea of affording "selected elderly persons" preferential treatment, there are some potentially negative implications that do result from this practice. For example:

- 1) The informal release of "destitute elderly suspects" does not bring the individual's economic problem to the attention of the proper officials--officials who, if aware, could render some aid.
- 2) The practice of informally "warning" elderly shoplifters or "banning them from the premises" does not help in addressing the issue as to why they perpetrated the crime in the first place.
- 3) The use of "warnings" as opposed to more formal action may serve as "reinforcement" or a "motivation" for some elderly persons to perpetrate more crime. (Bachand, 1984b)

Arrest and Prosecution of the Elderly Offender

The examination of existing arrest data coupled with a closer review of actual arrest practices suggest the "elderly crime problem" may be grossly underestimated. However, existing statistical evidence reveals that at least a portion of the elderly population will be arrested each year (UCR, 1980).

Two studies show evidence that continued involvement in crime by the elderly eventually results in formal prosecution with a high probability of conviction (Bachand, 1983; Bachand and Brahce, 1984). For example, an examination of conviction rates among the sample population of Detroit offenders (1981) clearly indicates that the elderly are convicted at a higher rate than younger offenders charged with the crimes of drunken driving and larceny. The sample of elderly persons charged with drunken driving were convicted 95 percent of the time and 55 percent of those convicted were sentenced to jail. This conviction rate was nearly 20 percent higher than those persons in the age group 17-21 and 35-44 charged with the same offense. Arrests and convictions of the elderly offender sample for larceny resulted in similar findings. The 35-44 age group were convicted at a rate of 26.7 percent as compared to a rate of 35 percent among 17-21 year olds and 50 percent for the elderly group (Bachand, 1984). These data on conviction rates for persons arrested for drunken driving and larceny are especially significant as they represent the two offenses for which the elderly are most often arrested.

Incarceration of the Elderly Offender

The study of the American jail system is central to the study of the elderly offender because most all of the elderly suspects arrested annually will spend some time incarcerated in them. For example, when a suspect is arrested, typically he or she will be immediately transferred to a detention facility (jail), booked and incarcerated. Sometimes the period of incarceration will only be a couple of hours until bond is posted. More serious offenses can result in longer detention--weeks and sometimes months. Jails tend to house a wide variety of persons, some of whom are awaiting trial while others are serving sentences.

Generally, jail populations are extremely diverse in terms of age, sex, and offender type. Mattick and Aikman (1969) argue that jails have become "residual organizations into which were shunted the more vexing and unpalatable social problems of each locality. Thus, the poor, the sick, the morally deviant, and the merely unaesthetic, in addition to the truly criminal, all end in jail." The prisoners confined to jails generally find themselves in old, understaffed, and overpopulated facilities. Phelps, Thomas, and Swanson (1979) note that prisoner complaints typically mention bad food, filthy sanitation, sexual assaults on prisoners, inadequate visiting arrangements, and excessive control by inmate trustees. The existence of these kinds of conditions in many of our nation's jails could make for a devastating and even fatal experience for the elderly inmate.

There is reason to suspect the elderly's exposure to jail will increase and become more of a problem in the future. Clearly, increased growth and life expectancy of the elderly population combined with increased participation and offender detection will result in more arrests and at least more temporary detention in local jails and police lock-ups.

This problem may well reach serious proportions as states continue to review and in many cases adopt stiffer penalties for operating motor vehicles under the influence of alcohol. Some states presently have an

established penalty of 24 to 48 hours in jail for first-offense drunk driving. Subsequent offenses carry increased jail terms and substantial fines. Arrest data for 1980 indicate over 90,000 or over 25 percent of all arrests of the elderly were for drunk driving. The continued pressure to adopt such mandatory sentences for specific offenses will affect the elderly and jail administrators alike.

First, mandatory jail terms restrict judges' discretion in sentencing thus eliminating the possibility of imposing a sentence that does not call for jail time.

Secondly, mandatory sentencing will increase the present problem of jail and prison overcrowding in the United States.

Thirdly, jail administrators will have to become increasingly aware of their responsibility of providing for the health and safety needs of the elderly inmate while he or she is incarcerated.

Booth (1984) notes that incarceration is a stressful experience for most persons and can be especially anxiety producing and detrimental to the health of the elderly person. Booth further states that health conditions in the incarcerated elderly may be difficult to detect and/or manage in many of the nation's jails. Early detection and management of chronic health problems, i.e., heart conditions, arthritis, hypertension, diabetes, and/or cancer commonly seen among the elderly present challenges in any setting, and certainly provide a challenge for the personnel in jail settings (Booth, 1984).

The generally poor health status of many elderly inmates clearly emerges as the most significant problem to administrators of detention facilities. The kinds of problems that appear to be most troublesome seem to fit into two categories. First, once an individual is incarcerated, the inmate's medical problems and the associated costs become the responsibility of the jurisdiction in which he is being held. For example, an inmate requiring surgery, intensive care, or dental work will have such services performed at government expenses. Second, should an inmate require hospitalization or transportation to a medical facility, the incarcerating agency is required to provide for the inmate's transportation and security (Bachand, 1984).

Linking Research to Practice

At the outset of this paper, it was proposed that the relevant research available concerning the elderly offender phenomenon would be used in developing a Continuing Education Intervention Approach (CEIA) as a response strategy. The research findings presented in this paper were intended to illustrate that a series of problems exist and that continuing education can play a vital role in preventing and appropriately responding to increased criminal activity by older Americans. The (CEIA) approach should be used to educate a variety of audiences, including police officers; jailers; prosecutors; judges; probation officers; physicians, nursing and other health professionals; social services personnel; retired persons; pre-retirement people; lawyers; elderly offender advocates; and, public policy makers.

Police officers currently receive little or no training concerning elderly persons whether they are victims or offenders. Officers need to be aware that elderly persons are capable of perpetrating violent crimes, often arm themselves for protection, and are capable of responding aggressively to real or perceived threats. Further, officers need to be made aware of the alternatives to arresting older persons, i.e., the availability of referral agencies when circumstances warrant. For example, the Area Commission on Aging can provide their clients with financial and/or nutritional assistance and Geriatric Assessment Teams can often determine health needs for families and also make referrals.

Clearly, there exists a need for jail personnel to receive training in the medical and psycho-social aspects of aging. Early detection of health related problems is in the best interests of the older inmate, and also protects the incarcerating agency from possible civil liability. Prosecutors and judges could benefit from appropriate seminars on aging to better prepare themselves in dealing with this segment of the aged population. Establishing procedures for securing clinical evaluations of the suspect's competency to stand trial would be an important first step toward ensuring justice is served.

Probation departments and social services personnel should also receive gerontological training so they can properly assess the needs of their client referrals in relationship to recommending appropriate sanctions to sentencing officials.

Aside from educating criminal justice practitioners, pre-retirement planning that focuses on money management and substance abuse, other health related problems which may lead to changes in behavior (Alzheimer's Disease, diabetes, psychoses), and the adjustment to excessive leisure time would be appropriate forms of preventive education. Clearly, there exists a need for education in substance abuse and the development of detoxification programs for older inebriates. Finally, for those elderly persons who find themselves involved in the criminal justice system, an advocate assistance program would be beneficial. This program would be especially helpful to those older first-time offenders who, unlike their younger, professional criminal counterparts, are not fully aware of their rights during the criminal proceedings.

Summary

This paper has identified an increase in crimes perpetrated by the elderly segment of our population. To date, the existence of the problem has received little research attention and subsequently neither the criminal justice system nor society at large has developed a response to it. It has been proposed that a CEIA could serve as an important first step in enhancing the general public's awareness of this phenomenon as well as serving as a means to ensure that our elderly population has a better experience with our system of justice than their younger counterparts who have passed through the system before them.

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FATHER? TEACHER? FRIEND?

INSTRUCTOR-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS IN A REFUGEE CLASS

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FATHER? TEACHER? FRIEND?
INSTRUCTOR-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS IN A REFUGEE CLASS

This research used an ethnographic design to describe instructor-student relationships in a Bible class for adult Laotian refugees in Capitol City, an industrialized, state capitol in the Midwestern United States. It reports part of the results from a study which asked: how do the Laotian students in an adult education class understand their relationship to the white American instructor? Three subsidiary questions emerged from the main one. First, how do the people in the class relate to one another, especially to the instructor, in behavioral terms? Second, what rights and obligations obtain in the instructor-student relationship? Third, in what category of experience do the students locate their relationship to the instructor?

METHODOLOGY

Fieldnotes of twelve classes provided the primary source of data. Incidental observations of Laotian refugees occurred during worship services of the church associated with the class. A conference of Lao people in a nearby city enabled observation of three class members in a situation controlled by Lao people and conducted almost entirely in Lao.

During all observations, the researcher assumed the role of participant observer. In terms of Bogdan and Biklen's "PARTICIPANT/OBSERVER CONTINUUM" (1982, p. 127) the role taken in the classes lay near the "complete observer" end of the scale. At the "Lao Conference" the role shifted about one-third of the way toward "complete involvement". Because casual contacts outside of class were more participatory, if the boundaries of the research setting are viewed as all contacts rather than only those in classes, then roles taken drifted between the middle of the continuum and the "complete observer" pole.

Scheduled interviews of class members, the teacher and other American refugee resettlers; documents; and a videotape of the twelfth class yielded additional data. Analytic questions concerned the typicality of interactional patterns and the relation of the patterns to interview statements about the meaning of the instructor-student relationship. The unit of analysis for observations and the video tape was the "speech event." These events can be distinguished by noting shifts in such matters as topic, theme and participants.

The design employed by this research and the assumptions about social interaction stated below fit in the ethnographic tradition. Because no full community ethnography was attempted, the approach taken here can be termed "microethnographic" (Erickson & Mohatt, 1982, p. 137).

The length of the bibliographies in Erickson (in press) and Goetz and LeCompte (1984) indicate that researchers in elementary and secondary education have been using ethnographic techniques with increasing frequency. Although Apps (1972), Long (1980) and Rockhill (1982) have urged adult education researchers to use qualitative approaches, Kidd (1981, p. 56) and Long (1983a, p. 27) report that few have adopted such methods. Long notes change in the situation with his claim that 15 of 197 descriptive designs in a 1983 study presented grounded theory "frequently based on a combination of observation, interviews and/or instruments" (1983b, p. 84). Mezirow, Darkenwald and Knox's Last Gamble on Education (1975) stands as a rare case in adult education research of a qualitatively based book length study.

Nothing said above assigns greater virtue to qualitative research than

to research done in the quantitative tradition. Rather, it assumes that the nature of the research question ought to determine the methodology used to answer it. This research tried to understand the meaning which the student-teacher relationship had for the students. The research questions can be answered only by direct observation and personal interview.

SPECIFICATIONS AND DEFINITIONS

Except for the white, male American teacher, all subjects were born in Laos, Thailand or Vietnam. Two Asian subjects require special comment. A Vietnamese man attended the fifth class. Because he did not attend again, he will not be mentioned below. Second, a Thai woman, married to an American and thus not a refugee, attended nine classes.

The category "Laotian Refugees" includes two groups of former residents of Laos. Ethnic Lao people living in Capitol City with refugee status will be called the "Lao". People of Hmong (Miao or Meo) ethnic and cultural heritage constitute a separate group which will be called the "Hmong".

The "teacher" played a major role in the class. It has been suggested that "mentor" and "facilitator" are more appropriate titles for educators of adults (cf. Long, 1983b, p. 234). The title "teacher" will be used here for the same reason that Darkenwald and Merriam adopted it, "because it is familiar, but it is defined in its broadest sense to denote anyone who directly facilitates learning" (1982, p. 17). In quotations requiring a proper name the teacher will be designated Mr. T.

The observations focused on behavior in terms of Weber's conception of social action. Weber argued that not every human behavior may be termed "Soziales Handeln". Rather, "Das innere Sichverhalten ist soziales Handeln nur dann, wenn es sich am Verhalten anderer orientiert" (Weber, 1956, p. 11). In a situation of social action a "Soziale Beziehung" may exist under the following condition: "Soziale ,Beziehung" soll ein seinem Sinngehalt nach aufeinander gegenseitig eingestelltes und dadurch orientiertes Sichverhalten mehrerer heissen" (1956, p. 13). For Weber only cases in which an actor orients his behavior meaningfully to that of others' may be termed "social".

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE TOPIC

Cover stories by publications as diverse as Time (1985, July 8) and Christianity Today (1984, July 12) signal popular interest in refugees. Published research on Southeast Asian refugees has appeared in numerous forms. Bibliographies have been compiled by Migration and Refugee Services for Southeast Asian refugees in general (1984) and by Olney for the Hmong (1983).

The issue of instructor-student relationships concerns all adult education, but holds special importance for inter-cultural programs. ABE and refugee resettlement programs assign complicated roles to people teaching refugees whose ethnic backgrounds differ from their own. Research can illumine the features of such roles and discover attitudes and behaviors which enable teachers to communicate meaningfully to their students. Therefore, this study treats an important issue in all adult education and in refugee resettlement.

FINDINGS

The key finding of this study can be stated as follows: IN THE LAO STUDENT-AMERICAN TEACHER RELATIONSHIP THE STUDENT HAS THE RIGHT TO REQUEST ACTIVE CARE IN MEETING ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS CONCERNS. THE TEACHER HAS THE OBLIGATION TO RESPOND TO REQUESTS FOR HELP WITH ACTIVE CARE AND BY ADOPTING SUCH AN ATTITUDE IN SERVING AS A BRIDGE BETWEEN REFUGEES AND AMERICAN SOCIETY.

One of the ways in which students claimed the right to request help and the teacher responded with active care concerned students' confusion about and the teacher's interpretation of bureaucratic rules and procedures. An example of this exchange occurred on five separate evenings in relation to a Lao man's application for a job at a local hospital. Although Mr. N had submitted an application previously, when he returned to the personnel office he was told that no application bearing his name could be found in the hospital's files. On the first evening the teacher explained that the hospital discards applications which it has held for one month. One may reapply every month, but each time a new application must be accomplished. The teacher then handed Mr. N a photocopy of his previous application and advised him to submit it. On the seventh night Mr. N and Mrs. M approached Mr. T. Despite having submitted several applications Mr. N had still not been hired by the hospital. He stated that a friend employed by the hospital suggested that he ask Mr. T to call the hospital. The teacher responded that he had spoken to someone at the hospital and that repeated calls would do no good. He explained that Mr. N ought to submit a new application and explained that the new one would look better than its predecessors because Mr. N could now claim to be employed on a part-time basis. Mr. T then offered to help in preparing a new application.

Interviews with other American refugee resettlers indicated that they too had been asked to interpret bureaucratic rules and procedures for Southeast Asian refugees. One resettler stated that she had helped a Vietnamese family open a food store by interpreting local health department regulations, by completing the health department's forms and by explaining the need for and provisions of health insurance. Finally, she had acted as a bridge between the family and Americans by interviewing a prospective bookkeeper. Also, in an interview with four resettlers of a Lao family in another city, one of the participants stated that she had served as interpreter and mediator in terms of children's school, adult education classes, explaining bills which arrived by mail and securing medical attention. Thus, it appears that one of the ways in which resettlers serve as bridges between the refugees and American society is by interpreting American bureaucratic rules and procedures and by mediating between the refugees and Americans.

In class, in interpreting bureaucratic rules and in general what relationship do the refugees expect to have with the teacher and with resettlers? An answer to this question emerged in an interview with Mrs. M. Mrs. M constitutes an especially important source of information in answer to the research questions. First, she serves as one of the class's Lao Bible readers and translators. Second, the teacher helped her husband apply for the high paying industrial job he presently holds. Third, her superior command of English and her close acquaintance with the teacher enables her mediate between students and Mr. T. Fourth, because she attended all but one of the classes observed for this project, she was observed as much as any student.

During the interview, Mrs. M stated that she had told the teacher and his wife that she wanted to address them as "Father and Mother". They related this same incident in an interview. Mrs. M also referred to Mr. T as "a special friend". Mrs. M regards her relationship to the teacher not in official, bureaucratic terms but in the personal, natural terms of parent and friend. She contrasted this relationship to unpleasant ones she had experienced with Americans in Capitol City and elsewhere.

To summarize, resettlers serve as interpreters of bureaucratic rules for refugees and mediate between them and Americans. Mrs. M understands her relationship to the teacher in a natural rather than a bureaucratic way in terms of an older family member to a younger one. When one party has needs, he expects the other party to try to meet the needs because he has done so in the past. This means that when in need I will ask someone who has helped before. If he helped me once, he will probably do so, not out of guilt or burden but because of the nature of our relationship. Further, my obligations to other people, such as to my parents, pass from me to the other party. Mrs. N. said that when her family in Laos pressured her for money she requested help from the committee of a different church which had sponsored her. They responded that they would discuss her request but gave no further answer. She suspected that they feared that she wanted to become dependent on them. When she made the same request of Mr. T., whom she had known briefly, he responded that "the Lord will find the money." By means of which she is unaware he did get the necessary amount. However, material help need not be given every time. When Mrs. N help in finding an apartment another person found one for her. However, the teacher maintained frequent contact with Mrs. M, asking how her search was coming and informing her that he had not found anything. Therefore, active care, not material help in every situation characterizes the way in which Mrs. N understands Mr. T's attitude toward her. Such care tries to help, empathizes with needs and recognizes that refugees do not want to become dependent. It is important to stress that for Mrs. M the request for and receipt of active care and material help do not imply dependency. Dependency or being unable to make it on one's own must be avoided. Further, receipt of help incurs little in the way of debt. In a Lao family "Financial assistance to an immediate relative (father, mother, brother, or sister) is regarded not as the sort of favor that warrants a debt of gratitude, but as part of the natural order of things" (Migration and Refugee Services, 1984, p. 10). One gets a rude shock if those to whom one feels close react to a request for help with coolness and the implication that the other party fears dependency.

Thus, a key factor about this group concerns the web of relationships obtaining within it. The students understand these relationships in natural, familial ways, not in a bureaucratic ones. A source of conflict arises when a refugee's naturalistic view conflicts with a resettler's bureaucratic one with its clearly defined, usually written rights and obligations.

CONCLUSION

Several questions emerge from this study. First, do the Lao and Hmong differ in their understanding of their relationship to the teacher? Second, is the quality of a refugee's relationship with her/his teacher related to learning gains? If so, how strongly related? How does the nature of this relationship compare with that obtaining in different adult education classes?

Adult educators can benefit from applying the theory of active care. First, staff selection and training ought to focus on finding and developing people who are willing to risk involvement in the lives of people often under great stress and who may demand of them what different adult students do not. Staff selection and training ought to stress relational, caring attitudes as strongly as class organization and information recall abilities. There is no room here for amateurs, for people who wish to run their own lives, dabbling in resettlement as the mood strikes them. Mrs. M expects that anyone entering her life on regularly, and asking her to devote time to a class, will want a personal, natural, caring relationship with her. Second, any caring native can participate in refugee resettlement. People with life skills and willing to get close to people whose cultural knowledge differs greatly from his can help refugees bridge the gap between their home cultural patterns and American bureaucratic ones. Third, the theory of active care challenges an educator of any adults. The value of an actively caring attitude, strongly indicated in the extreme case of refugees, may be important in any adult education setting.

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THE SMALL GROUP
UNDERSTANDING ITS EDUCATIONAL POTENTIAL

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THE SMALL GROUP: UNDERSTANDING ITS EDUCATIONAL POTENTIAL

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The small instructional group is used extensively as an instructional technique in adult education. Its virtues have been proclaimed by both practitioners and researchers. In the last decade, however, the focus in both practice and research has shifted almost exclusively to the individual learner. This is not to say the small group, as an instructional technique, has been abandoned but it has not continued to receive critical attention as an instructional technique demanding further understanding. The issue is not whether the individual or the small group should be our focus, but it must be realized that by focusing on the individual we are missing important insights that could be gained by studying the adult learner in the context of the small group. This research project examines one aspect of that context - that the small group as a social system is an entity that affects members significantly.

It has been long recognized that within a small group members can help each other to learn. Members help each other by sharing ideas, seeking clarifications, demonstrating skills, appreciating feelings and understanding personal concerns. Such constructive relationships do not characterize all small groups or even the helpful group at all times. Miscommunication, unwillingness to share, mistrust, unexamined misunderstandings often arise in small groups and prevent intended learnings. Such problems are viewed almost universally as having their origin in interpersonal difficulties. Thus explanations and solutions are proposed from this point of view.

Critical observations do not always support this point of view. There are cases where interpersonal difficulties have been faced and agreed upon resolutions have been developed yet it is clearly apparent to any observer, the basic difficulty remains. It may be convenient to take the position that the interpersonal difficulty remains because the members have been dishonest. Let us take a very different type of case. In the initial period of the group a member works very hard to get the group to accept a particular agenda but meets complete failure. A few sessions later the group comes to this member and seeks his leadership to establish this agenda. The explanation could be offered that the members needed to learn to trust each other before this particular agenda could be accepted. This may appear as a plausible explanation but it requires us to accept certain questionable assumptions. For example, is it possible for every member to get a reading on every other member in order to determine their interpersonal relationship and trust within a period of three or four hours? These incidents and questions serve as examples of a host of cases raising questions that alerted us to another point of view. Could the group itself be a force affecting the members' behaviors?

Seeing the dynamics of the group from this perspective gives us another point of view. I say another because I am not asserting that this point of view excludes or eliminates the interpersonal explanation as a point of view - one is complementary to the other. The notion that will be argued in this

paper is that there is a social system operating within the group - an entity that has its own life, as it were - which is affected by members and in turn affects members of the group. Others before us have argued this thesis and some have provided empirical data to corroborate the thesis. The present research furthers this line of inquiry and presents some important implications that flow from this work.

The first task before us was to determine if our notion that the group was an entity could be supported on empirical grounds. Before presenting this evidence, a brief historical account of the controversy surrounding this notion would serve to put the present research into a developmental perspective of this field of study.

In the late nineteenth century three brilliant scholars, Durkheim, Weber and Simmel, addressed the question of the existence of the group and presented three distinct solutions. Durkheim argued the existence of the group, pointing out that it was a social fact, the evidence for which could be found in three phenomena, a group has an external reality, it exerts coercion and it has generality. Weber started from the position that the fundamental fact is individual action and therefore rejected the idea that a group existed as an objective reality. The group exists as a speculative abstraction and as such can not be treated as an empirical datum. Simmel focused on interaction patterns or sociation forms. The group was not a sociation form, but the norms, rules and standards among other forms are the patterns that should receive our attention because these structure interpersonal relations.

Our work follows the lead laid down by Durkheim, that the group is a social fact. His methodology was also adopted, that the existence of a social fact can only be tested by another social fact. That meant we could not take evidence from individual members to corroborate the existence of the group. This latter methodology has been employed by several researchers, and although it provides one form of evidence, it fails to link the same level of data. The methodology employed in our study called for the identification of a social fact and then predicting a particular social fact which would result or follow from the identified social fact. Thus, if B followed A then the evidence corroborated the notion. If B did not follow A then the evidence falsified the notion. With this we had established a general operational framework for the study.

Moving further into our study we asked: What social facts reveal the existence of the group? There are a number, and among these which have received most attention are solidarity, cohesion and conformity. Before moving on to examine a case episode that provides evidence for the group as entity, our conceptual methodology model needs to be presented to make explicit how we went about testing our notion. The general model was: I. Premise; II. Assumption; III. Condition; IV. Assertion; V. Test and Conclusion. This general model will be illustrated in testing the social fact of allegiance. Space does not permit us to present data on other social facts which corroborate the existence of the group. May I again remind the reader that when the term group is used here it is synonymous with social system (Boyd, 1984, 1985).

The Premise, of course, remains constant, namely, the social system is an identifiable entity. In like manner the Assumption must also remain constant. It is here assumed that any entity will resist disintegration. We therefore set out the assumption that the social system as an entity resists disintegration up to the time when the group has been formally designated to disband. It is at the next step in our model that we introduce the social fact. Here we have selected allegiance. The social fact is: the social system demands allegiance to the basic assumption culture (Bion, 19) upon which it is functioning. The fourth step in the general model sets forth an Assertion that is stated in observable terms. Carrying through with the social fact of allegiance, we assert that any member(s) who does not give allegiance will be confronted by all other members to conform. The test is what precisely does occur in the group. If the member is confronted the assertion is corroborated, if the member is not confronted the assertion is falsified. The following episode is typical of the evidence corroborating the assertion

In the early meeting of a group observations established that the group was in a dependency relationship with its leader. The group could be described as being within a basic assumption culture of Dependency (Bion, 1959). This instructional group had met for two and a half hours. The instructor had not provided for a break period and there appeared to be a norm that he did not want the group to disband even for a few minutes although nothing had been stated on this matter either in class or in the syllabus. Nevertheless the group appeared to be acting on the rule that the group was not to take a break. A member, after an hour into the second session, made the statement that he wanted to take a break as two and a half hours was too long a period to sit. Initially the other members listened and tentatively explored the idea. The idea was discussed from the perspective of what the effect a break would have on the group. The member who had proposed the idea became increasingly emotional in asserting he had rights and his autonomy was not to be surrendered to the group. It became apparent at this point that he was standing alone and the other members as one body were in opposition to him. The clearly observable sense of the situation was, if you are not with us you must be made to join us or be apart from us, but what you can not be allowed to do is to fragment the group by your insistence on individual rights over the unity of the group. In such situations the group always triumphs if it is to survive and the member conforms or leaves.

Our conjecture was that the social system demands allegiance to the basic assumption culture. We posited allegiance as the social fact. The social fact which would corroborate the existence of allegiance is that the social system will confront any force that would attempt to fragment the social system. This sequence of events was observed.

Space prevents the presentation of more evidence, however, at this time we can state that our analysis of the data we have yet to discover a sequence of events that falsifies our thesis that the social system exists as an entity.

If our findings are accepted what does this mean to practice? There are a number of implications, only some of which we can explore here.

Group leaders must be aware of the demands the social system places on the individual. These demands can not be eliminated or disregarded. They must be identified, understood and worked through. Above all as leaders we must not set the individual against the social system, or the social system against the individual. Their relationship must be complementary. But we must remember that certainly in the early life of a group, the social system is primary. The social system must progress through a number of developmental phases before the individual begins to be valued on par with the social system.

The developmental views identified above occupies a central place in our implications for practice. Here I want to speak to two points. First the leader must attend to the developmental phases of the social system as a primary responsibility. The social system can be assisted and guided by the leader in constructive ways to move expeditiously through its developmental phases. But this can only be deliberately accomplished when the leader is aware that he/she is working with the social system as an entity. Second, the leader must help members to mesh their personal agendas into the agenda of the social system. When the social system is attempting to establish a resolution between trust and mistrust, the member must deal with his/her personal feelings, perceptions and notions about trust and mistrust. A member who introduces an agenda, for example, of autonomy, disrupts the work of the group because his/her agenda is out of phase with that of the social system.

Up to this point it may appear that there are few benefits for the individual member. That is an incorrect conclusion. Obviously as the social system works through these various agendas, such as trust, control, initiative, etc., these situations provide the members rich opportunities to rework their personal resolutions to these psychosocial crises. When the social system is working on trust a member can use this opportunity to re-examine his/her previously laid down resolutions to the crises of trust versus mistrust. The leader must be mindful of this learning opportunity and watch for situations where he/she may be helpful in facilitating a reconstruction of a crisis that a member is working upon.

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TRUST IN GROUPS:
THE GREAT MOTHER
AND TRANSFORMATIVE EDUCATION

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TRUST IN GROUPS: THE GREAT MOTHER AND TRANSFORMATIVE EDUCATION

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It is generally accepted that a culture of trust is necessary for a small group to be truly productive. From an experiential perspective, such a statement is tautological, for to share openly which is basic to a truly productive group, implies a condition of trust. Adult educators have long recognized the critical role trust plays in instructional groups. A variety of strategies are employed by group leaders to facilitate the establishment of trust in a group. Those who try to facilitate the development of trust in small groups have provided us with many critical observations. Some groups develop a culture of trust but they take different amounts of meeting times to do so. Most groups develop variant levels of trust, while some groups appear to be unable to develop a trust culture.

One approach in positing an explanation for such phenomena is to analyze the interpersonal relations. Such an approach focuses the analysis on the personalities within the group (Boyd, 1983, 1984). Another perspective is an examination of the cultural context (Boyd, 1983, 1984) within which the group is set. For example, an organization is conducting an in-service program, and it is observed that a good deal of rivalry and competitiveness exists in the operation of this organization and that atmosphere is carried into the small group. There is another way of looking at the topic of trust in a small group. This view looks at the small group as a social system - an entity in its own rights. In this approach, the social system itself becomes the focus of study. This approach does not replace either the interpersonal explanation or the cultural context explanation but serves to complement them (Boyd, 1983, 1984). The present study examines the phenomenon of the development of a trust culture in a small group within the social system.

The study resulted from a question I asked myself after I had worked with a small group over several sessions. It was a group of eleven persons who had enrolled in a course to study the dynamics of instructional groups. The social system was supportive of members and all members had shared personal feelings and in-depth perceptions. There was a clearly established norm that one could speak one's mind and although your statement might be a challenge this act did not destroy the support you were receiving from the social system. These conditions and others which are viewed as indicators of interpersonal trust were evident, yet I could not describe the social system as existing within a trust culture. This realization raised for me the following question: What was operating within the social system that would not permit the development of a trust culture?

The answer did not appear to lie in the interpersonal relationships in the group. There was evidence that rejected this line of explanation. The members did confront each other. They shared their perceptions and feelings. There was revealing of personal content and the examination of personal values, expectations and even the ownership of biases. Members affirmed that

there was realness in the relationship the members shared. There were such statements as: "I can always count on you taking that position;" "you are very predictable;" "at least we know where each of us stand." These statements point out the recognition of existing differences, but differences that speak to the existence of trust and not to mistrust. The modality of giving and receiving clearly characterized this group. All these specifications would lead us to assume that a culture of trust existed in the group. Yet I had a clear sense that a trust culture did not exist at the social system level.

I looked for evidence that would corroborate my intuitive perception that the social system had not established a trust culture. The evidence was apparent to any observer. The group attempted to initiate several projects for itself but it always returned to issues dealing with the various qualities of trusting and mistrusting. This fixation was not caused by unresolved interpersonal feelings of trusting other members and the members knew this at various levels of awareness. If the crisis of trust versus mistrust had been resolved, in either direction, the group could have moved on, but clearly they could not do so. Thus the crisis of trust versus mistrust was still the central issue for the group. Our inquiry brought us back to the question that was posed earlier: What was operating within the social system that would not permit the development of a trust culture?

Like a detective story the answer was not being found because certain critical observations had not been made. What was I failing to see? Karl Popper (1959) made the point, which any successful detective knows, that you must start with a conjecture. In science a conjecture rests upon some conceptual base, a theory, model or paradigm. I was failing to find an answer not because I was not observing carefully but because my observations had no relation to an explanation and until I had a framework that could provide me with a possible explanation my question would remain unanswered.

In observing the group in the active relationship I had with the group, I began to be aware of the strong impression that I was watching a family and this became for me an inescapable prehension. I immediately realized that the study I had made of Erich Neumann's work (1954, 1955) had become the framework through which I was viewing the group and by which I was beginning to find an explanation.

In order to follow the progress of my inquiry from this point, an understanding of the framework I employed is essential. Space restriction and the requirement of focusing our emphasis necessitate our doing much less than full justice to an explanation of the theoretical framework. In the conceptual framework the group is viewed as having a social system, which is autonomous, although in continuous transaction with the personality systems of the members and the contextual cultural system. It is thus seen as an interacting entity. During the life of a group, the social system attempts to progress through a set of defined phases. The initial phase is the Uroborus phase - a phase in

in which the members sense a loss of individual identity in the undefinable wholeness of the group as entity. This is a brief phase which quickly gives way to the second phase, the experience of the Great Mother. Other phases follow but it is this phase which is pertinent to the present study and therefore it is on this phase of the social system that we focus our attention.

Schindler (1966) appears to be the first observer to identify this view of the group (social system). He spoke of the group as manifesting the Mother symbol. Ruiz (1972) reported a series of observations that corroborate Schindler's notion. It was the work of Scheidlinger (1974) that in a comprehensive manner brought together theoretical and empirical contributions. This initial work was grounded in psychoanalytic thought. The work of Erich Neumann (1954, 1955) extended our conceptual framework into analytical psychology which provided a more inclusive view of the Great Mother. What does this phase look like in the life of a small group?

After the brief undifferentiate initial phase of the social system - the Uroborus phase - the group moves into the Great Mother phase. Here the group struggles with a number of interrelated problems which are posed within the structure of polar resolutions. On the one side the group could be coming to reveal such qualities as nurturing, giving, supporting, allowing, caring accepting, or it could be coming to manifest such qualities as withholding, demanding, rejecting, devowing, ensnaring, smothering. The first set of descriptors describe the Good Mother while the second set identify the Bad Mother, which are the two sides of the Great Mother. A Good Mother resolution would make possible further development while a Bad Mother resolution would mean fixation. In watching the social system of a small group it is possible to identify how it is resolving these polarities and therewith defining the identity of the group. A manual which describes the polar specifications of this phase - the Good and Bad Mothers - provide detail descriptors which coders use to classify their observations.

With this brief overview let me now try to integrate my observations with the conceptual framework outlined above. My contention was that what was occurring in the group could not be explained through an explanation based on the resolution of trust versus mistrust in the group. Something else was functioning in the life of the group which was preventing it from progressing. At that point I introduced the theory that posited the notion that a group had to resolve the developmental problem of whether it was a manifestation of a Good or Bad Mother. The introduction of this framework focused my inquiry and directed it to the question: Was the group's inability to move forward caused by the group's inability to resolve its relationship to the Good and Bad Mother?

To test this notion I began to introduce metaphors which contained content sometimes describing the qualities of the Good Mother and on other occasions of the Bad Mother. The metaphors drew from family situations, mythology or

fairy tales. After the initial reaction of what did these vague, unrelated statements have to do with their group, the members began to talk about their personal mothers and then mothers in general and eventually, in the case of certain women, they themselves as mothers. Emotionality arose; the discussion became animated, feelings were exposed and personal histories were revealed. The sense that I and two observers got from this was that my interventions had opened the locked door that had kept the group confined.

The discussion on mothers revealed another level of relationship within the group. Some members quickly identified the group as Mother and the meaning it had for them. Their sharing created the opportunities for empathy and through this the other members came to experience this new realm of consciousness.

Several consequences can be readily observed flowing from this level of raised consciousness. I have observed the following outcomes. The level of trust that was more of a cognitive realization of a relationship which had occurred earlier in the group was deepened by relating it to the struggle with the Great Mother. I believe this occurs because the stage is moved from the economics of personal investments to the wider arena of the development of human consciousness and with that development comes our mutual awareness and help that we bring to each other in our individual journeys. With the raising of consciousness comes an increasing willingness to relax our rigid control on things and people, and most importantly on ourselves. I see, as a result of such development, a responsible joining with humankind, not in its collective form, but in its expression of a working responsive community. I am fully aware that these statements require extensive amplification before their meaning is made clear in the manner which I have intended them to be understood.

What import has my research to educational practice? To speak to this question we must first answer the question: What is your educational end-in-view? If it is to stay with a stated objective agenda the small group has been given I have little to suggest to you from our research other than you may go through your agenda with little creative effort being shown and even less ownership of the solutions that may be arrived at. I do not intend this statement as a criticism but as an empirical observation. It would be naive to assume that all instructional encounters must be organized as transformative education, however, if your end-in-view concerns personal development of the members I believe my research has much to say to you.

I have selected one of several notions you may wish to consider. It is not critical that members be cognizant of group phase development. It is, I believe, for the leader to be. The leader must help the group to form as a learning community where there is support, caring, giving and receiving, acceptance, yes, even a sense of nurturing. The leader can not produce these qualities for or in the group but the leader can provide those cues and encouragements which can in their own caring way serve to model these

behaviors for others. If the leader has before her/him the symbol of a Good Mother and employing this symbol to help the group to develop those qualities which manifest the Good Mother he/she will help the group to achieve the Good Mother and therewith move on to the next phase of development.

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THE ADULT LEARNER
AND MICROCOMPUTER MANUALS

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THE ADULT LEARNER AND MICROCOMPUTER MANUALS

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Learning how to use a personal computer and the software programs which operate on a computer can be a trying experience for the first-time, as well as the experienced, user. The user must be able to follow and understand the personal computer manual in order to benefit from the investment in equipment and programs. However, as the number of users of personal computers in both the workplace and the home increases, so does the number of complaints about the difficulties encountered in trying to understand user manuals. There is a sense of frustration experienced by intelligent, otherwise capable individuals when they try to use computer programs. For example, Malcolm Knowles has chronicled his frustration in trying to learn to use his computer, a frustration which was not relieved even though he went to the top of the ladder in the manufacturing company (Knowles, 1983). The validity of user complaints is further reinforced by the growing number of supplementary manuals, tutorial disks, and training packages prepared by third-party vendors who have discovered a need and are seeking to profit from it.

Early on the authors realized that these manuals were written from a technical perspective by persons who understood how the software programs worked but not from the viewpoint of the user who approached computers in general, and the software package in particular, with a unique background, set of experiences, and series of apprehensions. Naturally, the background, experiences, and apprehensions vary for each learner. Knowles, in reflecting on his own experience, put his finger directly on the problem: "The computer industry doesn't understand how adults learn" (1983, p. 15). Such is the assumption of the authors and the basis upon which they undertook the present project.

The purpose of the current project, then, was to develop a model which could be used to assess the utility of user manuals for adult learners: Can the manual be used by the adult consumer with understanding, comfort, ease, and agility? A second purpose was more programmatic or projective. The authors hope that such a model or check list might eventually guide the development of user manuals in the future. It is not, and is not, the purpose of this project to assess the value or utility of the software package or program itself. The authors are not capable of performing that function; that task belongs to another group of experts.

The procedure for collecting data and developing the checklist had two foci. The first was a series of interviews with a variety of users on the Northern Illinois University campus. From these protocols were then distilled common threads of positive and negative experience. The data thus

collected provided the experiential or practical component for the formulation of the Microcomputer User Manual Assessment Form. The second was a review of major works which discuss adult learning to distill from them the generally accepted conclusions about how adults learn. The data so gathered provided the theoretical component for the development of the Assessment Form.

Interview Data

A series of questions was developed to guide the interview process. Each interview experience dictated the order in which the questions were asked and how many were asked. Since the respondents were most cooperative, they usually talked quite freely about their experiences, both positive and negative. Therefore, the order of discussion followed the lead of the interviewee, and the information provided was much more in-depth and anecdotal than could have been achieved by merely asking them to respond to the questions.

The information sought was as follows:

1. How long have you worked with a microcomputer?
2. How long have you had a microcomputer?
3. For what purpose(s) do you use one?
4. How much time do you devote to its use per day/week/month?
5. What hardware do you use?
6. What software do you use? What manuals?
7. How have you learned to use a microcomputer (By what means have you learned)? Workshops? Seminars? Training manuals? Other?
8. Describe your learning process. Did you read the whole manual? Did you use it as a training manual? Did you use it as a reference manual? Did you get expert assistance? Other?
9. What do you like about the manuals you use?
10. What don't you like about the manuals?
11. How would you improve it/them based on your needs?
12. What would you suggest to others in the use of the manual(s) you use?
13. If you were to write a manual, what would you do differently?

Some very interesting findings came out of these interviews. As an adult educator might expect, a variety of learning approaches were used. Some went immediately to the computer and tried out the package, referring to the manual only when stuck or desiring information beyond what was actually given on the screen. Others used a much more orderly, sequential approach, working through the manual from front to back. A subset of this second group were those who would focus on a specific aspect of a program and try to learn everything they could about that aspect.

Among the more positive comments and suggestions for improvement were included items about the layout and appearance of manuals: visual appeal, design, ease of handling (both in terms of how material was organized on a page or throughout the book and how the book itself was bound, a spiral binding being highly preferred), page numbering, headings, quality of paper, accessibility, and so forth. These items have been included as specific questions in the Assessment Form.

The frustrations and concerns expressed were several. In general, they shook out into the following categories:

--A common complaint was the inability to find information. Some were asking "how" questions: How do you get the program to do this or that function that it is supposed to perform? Others were "can" questions: Can this program do this or that? But in either case there was a general consensus that, for many programs, looking up information was difficult. Three major parts of user manuals were responsible for this frustration: tables of contents, indices, and separate or detachable reference cards. These did not consistently contain material organized in such a way that would help users with the various problems, difficulties, or questions which they had. One of the common problems was the inability to find directions or commands unless the user knew the specific terminology of the program. The fact that the user was acquainted with "generic" terminology was not sufficient because the manual might not make the connection between standard language and its own terms.

--Inexperienced users complained on the one hand about manuals giving more information than they wanted, cared for, or needed to know, especially about operating systems and how computers work. They were anxious to get on with the software package but were delayed by this extra information for which they had little interest. This was particularly true of those who were the more sequential learners, working through manuals front-to-back. On the other hand, inexperienced users complained of insufficient explanations of terms and functions, less than ample descriptions of various points of use, and the presence of technical terminology that made understanding more difficult. These users, generally speaking, were uninterested in extensive discussions about how computers work; they were interested in clear, detailed, and ample information about how to use the software package and how to apply it to their particular needs or concerns.

--More experienced users complained of having to wade through unnecessary material to get to what they wanted or needed to know about a particular package. Their manuals were not organized in such a way that they could easily determine what material was necessary for less experienced users but which they, with a more developed background, did not need.

Adult Learning Theory

While space allows for only the briefest survey of adult learning theory, it is necessary to outline some of its most significant and characteristic features which have been taken into consideration in the development of the Assessment Form. Knowles (1978) lists what he considers to be the "foundation stones" of modern adult learning theory:

1. Adults are motivated to learn as they experience needs and interests that learning will satisfy; therefore, these are the appropriate starting points for organizing adult learning activities.
2. Adults' orientation to learning is life-centered; therefore, the appropriate units for organizing adult learning are life situations, not subjects.
3. Experience is the richest resource for adults' learning; therefore, the core methodology of adult education is the analysis of experience.
4. Adults have a deep need to be self-directing; therefore, the role of the teacher is to engage in a process of mutual inquiry with them rather than to transmit his or her knowledge to them and then evaluate their conformity to it.
5. Individual differences among people increase with age; therefore,

adult education must make optimal provision for differences in style, time, place, and pace of learning. (p. 31)

Houle (1961) describes three "types" of adult learners, thus providing some insight into their motivation for learning:

The first, or, as they will be called, the goal-oriented, are those who use education as a means of accomplishing fairly clear-cut objectives. The second, the activity-oriented, are those who take part because they find in the circumstances of learning a meaning which has no necessary connection, and often no connection at all, with the content or announced purposes of the activity. The third, the learning-oriented, seek knowledge for its own sake. (pp. 15-16)

Elsewhere Houle (1981) speaks of "three major and overlapping modes of learning":

The mode of inquiry is the process of creating some new synthesis, idea, technique, policy, or strategy of action. (p. 31)

The mode of instruction is the process of disseminating established skills, knowledge, or sensitiveness. (p. 32)

The mode of performance is the process of internalizing an idea or using a practice habitually, so that it becomes a fundamental part of the way in which a learner thinks about and undertakes his or her work. (p. 32)

In a volume devoted entirely to adult learning, Kidd (1973) discusses such matters as cognitive learning and thinking, interest and learning, feelings and learning (thus emphasizing the affective as well as the cognitive domain in adult learning), motivation, and attitudes. He makes the point that learning theory is organized in different ways: there are the behaviorists; there are those who study learning according to cognitive processes; and there are the humanists. Much programmed instruction (and many computer manuals fit into this category, even if they don't look like programmed instruction) is based on a behaviorist model, while increasingly adult learning theorists see adults as learning best according to cognitive or humanistic models. Kidd outlines the process as follows:

The learner reacts to experience as an organized whole. . . .

Learning (and any other behavior) is essentially an attempt by the person to satisfy his needs as he perceives them. . . .

The behavior of the learner can be fully understood only from his own point of view. . . .

Gradually within a human being there is the development of the self, and this development is crucial for all learning. . . .

All new experiences for the learner are symbolized and organized into some relationship to the self, or are ignored because there is no perceived relationship, or are denied organization, or given a distorted meaning because the experience seems inconsistent with the structure of the self. . . .

Perhaps the most important task in learning is the development of a self that can deal with reality. (pp. 129-131)

After discussing some of these concepts, Smith (1982) also brings out the importance of learning styles for each individual. Some adults are more field-dependent while others are more field-independent. Adults conceptualize and categorize in different ways: some are more concrete while others are more abstract in the formulation of concepts; some are more orderly or

sequential while others are more random in organizing their categories of knowledge. Yet another way of organizing learning style is by noting the senses which best provide access to new knowledge and information: visual, auditory, or tactile. To this can be added Tough's (1971) research in which he demonstrates that adults are by-and-large self-directed and independent learners.

In summary, we can say that there are several theories about adult learning; adults possess various learning styles; learning is both cognitive and affective; adults have various histories of experience (and this is certainly true of computer users), even as they have various motivations, levels of interest, and attitudes about what they are to learn. Those who write computer manuals must take these factors into consideration, as well as the learning environment and the proclivity of adults toward independent, self-directed learning.

Implications for the Assessment of User Manuals

User manuals and their writers need to be aware of, reflect, and be amenable to the characteristics of adult learners, adults as independent learners, and varieties of learning styles. They need to distinguish between technical manuals and instructional and applications manuals because people have different levels of technical background, experience, and interest. The reader ought to be able to work through the manual as an independent learner (the manual operating as a self-paced study guide) and/or use the manual as a reference guide. (This criterion could be met by the development and inclusion of two manuals.)

On the basis of the experiential and theoretical investigations carried out, the authors have concluded that user manuals must contain the following: a detailed table of contents; a detailed index with cross references; an introduction on how to use the manual itself, including information on its organization so that users with various levels of computer literacy can use the manual without frustration; a handy reference card or guide for quick access to commands unique to each program; and two kinds of documentation--a technical reference manual and a step-by-step user's guide. In addition, there should be some reference or resource which directs the user where to turn when all else fails--some toll-free number and/or list of knowledgeable local vendors. The primary requirements for such a hot-line are ready availability and the ability to provide a quick response to the user's question.

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"STRATEGIES FOR EDUCATING PARENTS AS ADVOCATES FOR PUBLIC SCHOOL REFORM"

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STRATEGIES FOR EDUCATING PARENTS AS ADVOCATES FOR PUBLIC SCHOOL REFORM

Problem. For adult educators concerned with education for social change, working with parents involved in public school reform offers many challenges in the application of research to practice. From the beginning definitions of educational goals and methods are at issue.

On the one hand, white middle-class parents tend to have more formal education, enjoy more success at it, and to be more involved in their children's schooling. They may volunteer, sit on school committees, or help kids readily with homework and projects. Minority, poor, and working-class parents, on the other hand, tend to have suffered discrimination, underachievement, and failure more than success in school, and to have a sense of alienation from the middle-class culture of the schools. Middle-class parents do not have to be "educated" to school involvement; they more often expect it, having learned habits of participation informally during their own schooling. Minority, poor, and working-class parents, however, have to overcome not only their powerlessness within present school structures, but also their own perceptions of personal failure and blame for their own poorer education and that of their children. (Fruchter)

Historical Background. The issues of which parents and how they participated in public schools came into sharp focus in the 1960's when minority Political movement attacked public schools for both their failures to educate minority children and their exclusion of minority parents from decision-making. This critique from community organizations, political movements, and parent and child advocacy groups fueled diverse reform strategies. They included creation of community-based alternative schools outside the public system, community control of public schools, alternative schools inside the public system, and the establishment of compensatory education programs to provide supplemental services to children with special needs (e.g., low-income, bilingual, and special education students). Great Society education legislation responded to the demand for greater parent involvement with mandated parent advisory councils, funding to hire parents as school aides, and parent-child education programs like Operation Headstart. (Berger, Moore)

Current Policy. In the 1980's federal policy has reversed financial and program support for such reforms, advocated a smaller federal role in public education, and favored families by proposing vouchers for consumer choice of public or private schools. Parents are championed as partners in the home, not at school. Research on parent support at home looks at methods such as more reading aloud, frequent helping with homework, and going on cultural outings. Exclusive focus on the home, however, as distinct from home-school interaction, implicitly builds on the "deficient family" analysis of school failure, and once again blames the victim, rather than analyzing faulty teaching and administration in the schools. (Lightfoot) Other research, however, documents the persistent widespread parents' desire for greater school involvement as policy and decision makers and advocates, in spite of teachers' and administrators' reluctance to accept or go beyond the rhetoric of support for those roles. (Henderson, Williams)

Research. This research counters the parents-in-the-home trend and evaluates a program of parent leadership circles intended to involve minority and low-income parents in local school improvement efforts in a large midwestern city. A program working with parents as advocates for public school reform must decide what the educational goals will be - e.g., reading and writing skills, group participation, leadership development, social investigation, and/or school reform - as well as what teaching methods will be used. The parent leadership circles will not address directly the formal literacy abilities of the parents. Prior experience indicates that the parents are likely to range widely in their abilities to read and write. Teaching methods will favor small groups and social modeling; oral/aural exchanges of information and ideas; newsprint recording of group discussion; minimal required reading, with optional materials available for those who desire more; collaborative research and writing; and social action.

Project Design. For ten weeks this fall twenty parents of inner-city public school students will meet once a week, for three hour sessions, in a parent leadership circle to explore their dissatisfaction with local public schools. The group has been set up by an education advocacy group and will be the first of several groups to operate in different city neighborhoods over the next few years. Evaluating the experience of this first group will be useful in setting up succeeding groups and helping them to meet goals more effectively.

Participants in the circle will be recruited by community organizers from the advocacy group. Organizers will maintain an informal relationship with each parent during the circles and afterward. Meeting with a facilitator, from the staff of the advocacy group, the parent circle will base discussion of the schools on their own experience, past and present; documents and background information about the city school system; critical analysis of urban schools using the "effective schools" research; and case studies of other reform activities. The group will negotiate its purposes, problems to investigate, and actions to take. After the ten-week circle has ended monthly problem-solving sessions will offer circle members a continuing opportunity to pursue support for work they are doing to improve their local schools.

Evaluation. Evaluation of the parent leadership circles will try to assess how well the circles achieved their goals: consistent parent participation, parents' greater ability to analyze schools; parents' intervention on behalf of their own children's education; and involvement in local school improvement efforts. The advocacy group hopes the circles will set in motion emerging clusters of parent leaders at local schools. No specific agenda for any parent cluster is intended, but will take off from local conditions parents feel able to act on. Parents will have their own personal goals, as well as goals for the group and for their local schools.

Several methods will be used to gather evaluation data. Simple quantitative measures will provide participation indicators, such as number of parents in attendance, number of schools represented, number of field activities done outside the circles, number of contacts between parents and organizers, and between parents and local school personnel.

Qualitative measures will be done by the advocacy group organizers who have recruited persons into the circles. They will use open-ended interviews with the parents before, during and after the circles to explore reasons why parents are interested, previous activist and leadership experience in the community, perception of their own education, and involvement in their children's education.

Participatory research measures will be used by the group itself to evaluate the progress of the meetings toward achieving goals, facilitator and parent leadership, group process, and local school involvement. Group process includes discussion, analyzing and posing problems, selecting and investigating issues, and reflection on that process. The parents' school involvement itself is a form of participatory research and parents will document and evaluate their actions.

BRIDGING THEORY AND PRACTICE Participation Theory.

...(S)tudies of participation, for the most part, count individuals' voluntary memberships in organizations, the formal positions they hold, or the number of meetings they attend. Account is not taken of the type of participation which most characterizes that of the poor - that is, nonvoluntary participation. The poor are involved in the public schools, welfare departments, departments of public health, and so forth. Their participation in such organizations although it is time-consuming, active, and enduring, is ordinarily not "voluntary" in the sense that they make the choice to join or attend or are elected. Rather, their participation is required by law or is mandatory for the acquisition of resources necessary to sustain life. (Brager & Specht, p. 37)

Participation in community-based education for social change is voluntary and persists against great odds. Analysis of that participation entails not only the questions of motivation, but also personal and social outcomes. It tries to develop a more complex understanding of the links between the desire to learn, the processes of learning, and of the links between the desire to learn, the processes of learning, and the benefits. What qualities of educational experiences more thoroughly engage people in efforts to confront their own powerlessness and victimization, both inside themselves and outside in the doorways of the institutions they involuntarily attend? When are people "ready"? What constellations of personal characteristics and social conditions can spark and hold someone to the discipline of group building, social studies, and collective action? What kinds of supports are most useful in sustaining people's continuing efforts at self-transformation and social change? (Kieffer)

Theories of Education for Empowerment. While Freire's model of education for critical consciousness has inspired many adult education campaigns in the context of Third World revolutions, adult educators in the U.S. are often unsure about how to adapt that methodology to non-revolutionary settings. The parent leadership circles are, in part, guided by prior experiences using the methods of decoding familiar environments for underlying power relationships and cultural conflicts, reflexive dialogue, and taking social action described by Freire and others. (Ashton-Warner, Freire, Kozol, Noble, Reed, and Shor)

They run counter to some of the educational assumptions made by Saul Alinsky in his community organizing work. Evaluation of parent circles will contribute to our understanding of these methods.

CHALLENGES TO CURRENT PRACTICE

This research offers two challenges to current trends in the field of adult education, one at the public policy level, and a second to the definition of educational goals.

Institution-based adult education tends to favor individual education for job or career advancement and leisure life, rather than group education to change social conditions. It defines literacy as basic reading and writing skills, the foundation of individual education. Public policy channels social resources allocated for adult education of low-income and minority persons largely into basic skill literacy programs that ignore the social context and uses of literacy. This approach would suggest that the place to start with parents to improve their children's education would be to improve the parents' reading and writing skills.

Yet, while teachers, administrators, students themselves, and the media warm to moving stories of personal success - the 72-year-old grandmother who earns her G.E.D. - the statistics indicate high drop-out rates from basic skills programs, a creaming effect with those who do graduate, and the persistence of high unemployment and underemployment of basic literacy students. The recessionary economy and advanced technology render obsolete the educational differences among more applicants competing for fewer jobs.

Community-based adult education tends to be embedded in a more activist context and can make tackling problems of poverty and political powerlessness instrumental in achieving a literacy based on social meanings and problem-solving. Community organizing, political movements, and advocacy reform campaigns may lack traditional forms of education - teacher authority, student compliance, standard curriculum, specified student response modes - yet community-based practitioners are daily engaged in educational work with community people. Popular education is essential in any social action group as people learn new skills in group building, argument, and leadership; research causes of local conditions and the nature of local power structures; and imagine and carry out alternatives to the way things are.

When education itself becomes the focus of social change, as in parents organizing for public school reform, the parents are in double jeopardy. Not only are their children having difficulty in school, but they themselves are likely to have tasted similar failures, have internalized self-blame for their failure, and yet have totally traditional expectations of what is proper education. The challenge becomes to transform their understanding of their own schooling, empowering them to believe in the efforts to change the social reality.

More focus on the community would link adult educators to the live currents of social movements. Policy decisions made by adult education programs - in graduate schools, churches, hospitals, professions, or unions - can reproduce traditional forms of individual education for success and leisure or pursue community-based alternatives responding to urgent personal and social needs.

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TEACHER GENERATED LOAD:
AN APPLICATION OF
HOWARD YALE McCLUSKY'S
CONCEPT OF MARGIN

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Teacher Generated Load: An Application of Howard Y. McClusky's Concept of Margin

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Introduction

The inclination to participate in organized learning activities often presupposes, according to Howard Y. McClusky (1970, 1971), a degree of *Margin* in the lives of adult learners. *Margin* can be viewed as the amount of discretionary energy an individual can draw upon when considering participation in an activity (Cookson, 1985). McClusky, in the early 1970s, applied his concept of *Margin* to the participation pattern of older adults in organized learning activities. More recently, Keith Main (1979) proposed applying the concept of *Margin* to the teaching-learning transaction, viewing *Margin* as a nucleus for a teaching-learning model. And, during this past year Day and James have applied the concept of *Margin* to the role of educational broker (1984a, 1984b).

McClusky (1970) identified *Margin* as:

a function of the relationship of Load to Power. In simplest terms *Margin* is surplus Power. It is the Power available to a person over and beyond that required to handle his Load. By Load we mean the demands made on a person by self and society. By Power we mean the resources, i.e. abilities, possessions, positions, allies, etc., which a person can command in coping with Load (p. 82).

One of many dimensions of *Margin* not yet adequately addressed in the literature is the degree to which teachers of adults contribute to the depletion of discretionary energy (*Margin*) in adult learners (Day & James, 1984b). While Main (1979) links the concept of *Margin* to the teaching-learning transaction and specifies a number of sources of *Load* he neglects to identify the teacher as an additional source of *Load*. Elsewhere the authors describe an initial investigation into teacher-generated sources of *Load* (Day & James, 1985). Through semistructured interviews with 42 adult students at the University of Wyoming, 57 examples of teacher-generated *Load* (all likely sources of energy depletion) were gathered. Examples clustered around four areas: attitude, behavior, task, and environment. An unexpected finding of the study was that the sample identified attitudinal and behavioral examples of teacher-generated *Load* more than three times as often as task examples. This lead the authors to speculate that many adult learners adjust their *Margin* to deal with *expected* task demands given by teachers. But additional *unexpected* demands are also made

upon adult learners--the attitudinal and behavioral characteristics of teachers--thereby depleting the amount of energy often needed to satisfactorily complete a learning objective. The findings have many implications for adult education practitioners whether they are primarily teachers of adult learners or program planners. A listing of some possible sources of teacher-generated *Load* and a few suggestions for their elimination are the focus of this current paper.

How Teachers of Adults Contribute to Student Load

Attitudinal, behavioral, task, and environmental components are all sources of teacher-generated *Load*. Examples of each follow:

attitude

- a. Learner treated as an inferior
- b. Learner's opinions ignored
- c. Teacher too impatient
- d. Teacher too rigid

behavior

- a. Teacher's distracting mannerisms
- b. Teacher's mumbling
- c. Teacher's disorganization
- d. Teacher's lack of eye contact

task

- a. Inappropriate assignments
- b. Guidelines for evaluation/grades unclear
- c. Busy work
- d. Too little time to do assigned work

environment

- a. Meeting room too hot, too cold
- b. Poor lighting
- c. Desks and chairs uncomfortable
- d. Noise from neighboring classrooms

Whether or not the teacher is totally responsible for the above mentioned illustrations of *Load* the adult learner will often place the responsibility on the teacher. If the room is too hot or too noisy, the teacher may be viewed as insensitive to the learner's welfare. If the teacher mumbles, he or she may be viewed again as insensitive. If the assignments are meaningless or inappropriate to the subject to be learned, then once more the teacher's sensitivity is questioned. If the teacher's attitude is uncaring and/or arrogant the learner may view the learning activity as not worth the investment of energy. Again, a teacher's lack of sensitivity may decrease the discretionary energy of the adult learner.

Current research regarding the teaching of adults has often emphasized the importance of establishing a positive climate for learning. Russell Robinson (1983) suggested that "perhaps the most important role of the teacher of adults is to create a learning environment, an 'adult atmosphere' for learning, a climate of mutual respect, a friendly, informal, supportive atmosphere" (p. 42). Climate is a major element in Malcolm Knowles' "Andragogical Model." (pp. 43-59) A learning climate--either one which is supportive of the learners involved or one which is not--is established quickly during the first class meeting (Crutchfield, 1978; Draves, 1984; Pratt, 1983). Underlining this research is the suggestion that teachers of adults must become sensitive to the needs of adult learners. McClusky's concept of Margin provides the reason "why" such a stress on sensitivity is so critical to the teaching-learning transaction. Also, the authors believe that research into the positive aspects of teaching or facilitating adult learners must be augmented by investigations into the less popular aspects of teaching adults: the factors that *negatively* affect the learning endeavor that are within the control of the teacher, i.e., components of instructor-generated *Load*. The simple negation of the positive traits of teachers--most often emphasized in the literature--to describe undesirable characteristics does not address issues such as *Margin* adequately, an example would be the *Pickering Effect* (Day, 1985).

Anyone can teach adults, proclaims Florence Nelson (1977). Requirements are simple: a love of your subject, a wish to share it, and a basic competency in it (p.3). Any teacher of adults can also become the source of unnecessary *Load*, the source of the depletion of discretionary energy needed to accomplish a learning objective to the satisfaction of adult learners: negative attitude, demeaning behavior, inconsideration for the learning climate, neglect of physical conditions, as well as burdensome tasks.

Ways to Minimize Teacher-Generated Load

As is so often the case when one identifies a problem, the realization that the problem exists is a major step towards its eventual elimination. What follows are a few ways to minimize teacher-generated *Load*.

Teachers

- a. Acknowledge that the concept of *Margin* exists in your adult learners (Main)
- b. Understand that the concerns of your learners do not just center around the content of the course (Pratt)
- c. Acknowledge that you as a teacher contribute to *Load* in learners, and that you may do so in a number of ways: through

your behavior, learning environment, attitude, and the structure/content of your class.

d. Address the issue of *Margin* during the first class meeting

Program Planners

- a. Encourage your teachers to recognize that *Margin* is a concept which directly affects their interaction with adult learners
- b. Provide Inservice experiences for teachers which would explore *Margin*
- c. Discuss the concept of *Margin* with the students participating in your activities and encourage them to provide you with examples of teacher-generated *Load* (names of teachers do not have to be given)
- d. If you have an adult student newsletter introduce *Margin* through that medium; you shall demonstrate that you are indeed sensitive to the issue of *Margin*
- e. Monitor the teaching settings to note examples of environmental sources of *Load*: uncomfortable seating arrangements, inadequate ventilation, etc. and then acknowledge that they exist and that, when possible, you will do something about them.
DON'T IGNORE THAT SUCH ENVIRONMENTAL EXAMPLES DO EXIST.

Summary

The ultimate purpose of this inquiry is to encourage awareness of teacher-generated *Load*, and to offer a few suggestions for the elimination of the sources of teacher-generated *Load*. The sharing of this information may especially assist adult education professionals in identifying and avoiding those attitudes and behaviors that negatively affect adult learners.

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The Relationship of Teacher Psychosocial Behavior
to Significant Learning in Ten Adult Instructional Groups

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THE RELATIONSHIP OF TEACHER PSYCHOSOCIAL BEHAVIOR TO SIGNIFICANT LEARNING IN TEN ADULT INSTRUCTIONAL GROUPS

Many adult education programs frequently involve small group instruction. In this setting one of the factors that may influence what students learn and how is the content of the adult educator's classroom verbal behavior. While this problem has been studied extensively in elementary and secondary (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974; Flanders, 1967; Gage, 1978), the conceptual and methodological difficulties of this research (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974) limit its usefulness to the adult educator. In addition, a consideration of the unique aspects of the adult as learner (Boyd, 1966) indicate a need to study this problem within the context of adult education classrooms. The few studies that have attempted this research typically reflect a "process-product" perspective (Conti, 1985). However, focusing on student achievement alone fails to provide an adequate understanding of how adults learn, or what teacher behaviors facilitate the process of learning.

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of teacher verbal behavior to the behavior of adult learners who were participating in an education program for drivers convicted of operating while intoxicated (OWI). This program emphasizes the need for participants to reflect on their behaviors and attitudes towards drinking and driving (Department of Transportation, 1982). This study sought to determine if the content of teacher talk is related to this process. It was decided to begin this research program by testing the commonly held assumption that "positive" teacher behaviors facilitate "desirable" teacher behaviors. What is positive teacher behavior and what is desirable student behavior is defined within the conceptual framework of ego psychology.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The content of student verbal behavior often reveals a willingness or an unwillingness to interpret and lend meaning to one's world and one's self within the world. It can also reflect primarily a desire to acquire information or skills, or a desire to learn nothing at all. Learning as an adult is meaningful only in the context of one's identity (Boyd, 1966). This process is referred to here as "significant learning." Rogers (1959), Cantor (1956) and Snygg and Combs (1959), among others, defined significant learning as a process in which a person comes to see himself or herself differently, and accepts his or her feelings more completely. It is characterized by increased flexibility, more realistic goals, and a willingness to change maladjusted behaviors. The student is more open to that which is both within and outside of himself or herself.

Student behaviors which demonstrate a willingness to engage in significant learning were conceptualized according to the Kroeber - Haan model of ego functioning (Haan, 1963; 1977; Kroeber, 1963). This model classifies human behavior on the basis of two functions used by the ego in the process of adaptation. The ego function of coping describes behaviors similar to those identified for significant learning, while the ego function of defense identifies behaviors which may impede significant learning. A third category defines student behavior which reflects little, if any, ego involvement by the learner. This category is referred to as No

Evidence (For the behavioral specifications of this system see White, 1976 and Wilson, 1974).

Given the importance of the coping function to the process of significant learning, the question then becomes: Do "positive" teacher behaviors facilitate the use of coping in a small instructional group? What is meant by positive requires a theoretical framework consistent with the view of human behavior reflected in the Kroeber - Haan model and useful for interpreting the content of a teacher's verbal behaviors.

The theory of ego development proposed by Erikson (1980) and adapted for use in the study of small instructional groups by Boyd (1985; 1984) was used to interpret teacher verbal behavior. This theory provides specifications for identifying the content of teacher verbal behavior as psychosocial or nonpsychosocial. Teacher psychosocial verbal behavior (TPVB) specifies that content of teacher interventions most likely to have an emotional impact on the student and, therefore, most likely to elicit coping or defense functions. TPVB will reflect one of eight different psychosocial issues. Each psychosocial issue has both a positive and a negative aspect. This is the basis for recognizing TPVB as positive or negative (For the behavioral specifications of this system see Davie, 1971; White, 1976 and Wilson, 1974).

The specific conjecture tested in this study can now be stated: Within a small instructional group the frequency of teacher psychosocial behaviors that are positive is directly related to the frequency of student coping behaviors. In addition to testing this conjecture, the study sought to describe the specific psychosocial issues manifest in the content of the teacher's verbal behavior, as well as the extent to which student verbal behavior reflected psychological involvement in the learning process.

METHODS

The data for this study were gathered as part of a large evaluation study of Wisconsin's Group Dynamics-Traffic Safety School (GD-TSS). The sampling method, research design and data collection procedures are discussed in Boyd et (1979). Ten instructional groups were selected for this study. Each group met for seven three hour sessions. Each group session was videotape and audiotape recorded. One session per group was randomly selected for analysis. These 10 sessions were randomly ordered and then assigned to two judges for coding teacher verbal behavior. Sessions were then randomly assigned to two different judges for coding student verbal behavior. The unit of analysis for teacher and student verbal behaviors was the an utterance. All coders followed an explicit coding procedure outlined in the coding manuals for the two systems. All coding was performed independently. The analysis of the sessions began following a sufficient training period and the establishment of inter-coder reliability. Reliability checks were done at three different intervals during the coding process, using the simple percent agreement method. All reliability coefficients were within acceptable limits for this methodology (For the values of the 12 coefficients obtained, see Dirks, 1981). The correlation between the frequency of positive TPVB and the frequency of student coping behaviors was determined using the Spearman rho, a rank order correlation. With a sample size of 10 and alpha set at 0.05, the

absolute value of rho must be greater than or equal to 0.65 to reflect a significant correlation.

FINDINGS

The findings will be discussed in three parts: 1) teacher psychosocial verbal behavior; 2) student verbal behavior; and 3) the correlation of teacher psychosocial verbal behavior to student verbal behavior. The frequency of TPVB in each of the categories was expressed as a percent of the total number of psychosocial utterances coded for each teacher. The percent of TPVB that was positive varied from a low of 38.3% for Group 6 teacher to a high of 78.3% for Group 9 teacher. The mean frequency of positive TPVB for the 10 teachers was 57.8%. The predominant psychosocial issue reflected in the content of TPVB for all 10 teachers was Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt (Erikson's stage II). For the II+ category (Autonomy) the frequencies ranged from a low of 20.6% for Group 6 teacher to a high of 55.4% for Group 9 teacher, with a mean of 37.3%. For the II- category (Shame and Doubt) the frequencies ranged from a low of 16.6% for Group 4 teacher to a high of 55.6% for Group 6 teacher with a mean of 31.1%. Overall, a mean of 68.4% of the total TPVB were coded in these two categories. The categories with the next highest mean frequencies were Industry (IV+) with 6.5%, Identity (V+) with 5.6%, Trust (I+) with 4.6%, and Mistrust (I-) with 3.9%. Less than 11% of the total TPVB was coded in the remaining 11 categories. No utterances were coded in VII- (Stagnation), VIII+, (Integrity), or VIII- (Despair).

The predominant category reflected in the content of student verbal behavior for the 10 groups was the "No Evidence" category. Eight of the 10 groups had a higher frequency of student utterances in this category than in the other two. The frequencies for this category ranged from a low of 27.5% for Group 2 to a high of 77.1% for Group 9, with a mean of 55.2%. All 10 groups had a higher frequency of Defense utterances than coping utterances. Frequencies for the Defense category ranged from a low of 11.9% for Group 9 to a high of 69.6% for Group 2, with a mean of 34.2%. Frequencies for the Coping category ranged from a low of 2.7% for Group 7 to a high of 15.5% for Group 3, with a mean of 10.6%.

The absolute value of the rank order correlation obtained between the percent of TPVB that is positive and the percent of student verbal behavior that is coping is 0.14. This value is not statistically or practically significant. Therefore, the hypothesis under investigation in this study has been falsified. Several additional rank order correlations between the different categories of TPVB and student verbal behavior were performed as post hoc analyses. No significant associations were found with any of the additional conjectures. This analysis suggests that, for these 10 groups and for the observational categories used, TPVB is not significantly associated in any way with the content of student verbal behavior.

DISCUSSION

The study's findings suggest that TPVB, whether positive or negative, is not associated with student ego functions that may either facilitate or impede significant adult learning. This conclusion is disturbing because it runs counter to much of the conclusions drawn from the study of teaching (Dunkin and Biddle,

1974), and to much of the assumptions inherent in adult education literature. It is possible that 1) there is no relationship between TPVB and student coping behaviors; 2) the study is methodologically flawed; or 3) the relationship between TPVB and student coping behaviors is more complicated than assumed in this study. The weight of the research evidence would suggest that the first explanation is not plausible. Secondly, while this study should definitely be replicated with methodological improvements, these improvements are unlikely to substantially improve the very low correlation values obtained in this study. It is more feasible that the relationship is mediated by a number of variables, such as congruency between the psychosocial content of teacher and student interactions (Fay, 1971), the group culture (Davie, 1971), and the ego identity of the group members (White, 1976). The fact that GD-TSS students viewed this experience as mandatory may also be a significant variable in the teacher - student relationship. Each of these possibilities requires further study.

Several practical issues are raised by this study. While the adult education literature emphasizes the need for teachers to be positive and supportive, a very high percentage of GD-TSS teachers' verbal behaviors are not positive and supportive. Very little time was spent with establishing trust, as evidenced by the very low percentage of Trust utterances. Furthermore, GD-TSS students range across the adult life span. Yet, the teacher utterances show a predominance of Stage II concerns suggesting a preoccupation in these groups with issues of control and authority. The question is whether this finding reflects concerns of the teacher or the students, or both. The significance of these practical findings also needs further study.

This study has demonstrated the usefulness of the ego psychology perspective for guiding the behaviors of teachers in small adult instructional groups. The frameworks utilized in this work can assist a teacher in attempting to interpret the meaning of their behavior as well as that of their students. Such a perspective can potentially enhance the role teachers play in facilitating significant learning in adults by giving them a way to place information and skills in a context of deeper, more personal meaning within the lives of their students

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SCIENCE AND ART AS GUIDING METAPHORS
IN THE CLINICAL CURRICULUM

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Science and Art as Guiding Metaphors in the Clinical Curriculum
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The field-based or clinical experience is an important component of professional training programs, including teacher education, law, social work, nursing and medicine. Frequently, graduate programs in adult education will also include a form of practicum or internship. In addition many adult learners seek to develop new technical skills by participating in adult education programs which make use of "practical" learning activities. For purposes of discussion the term "clinical education" is used here to refer to an educational experience in which the student is placed in the role of providing some kind of service to individuals requesting or needing this service. Nursing students providing care for patients on a hospital ward, law students preparing a defense for a client, medical students seeing clinic patients or adults receiving emergency medical services (EMS) training by riding in an ambulance are all examples of clinical education. Although I will draw primarily from medical education, the term clinical is not intended to imply necessarily a "medical" situation. The analysis provided here should hold for all forms of clinical or field-based experiences.

The literature on planning and evaluating clinical curricula reflect a reliance on a performance-based education (PBE) model (Ford, 1978; McGahee et al, 1978; Segall et al, 1975; Staropoli and Waltz, 1978). While offering a highly systematic approach to the clinical curriculum, this strategy is limited in several ways when applied to clinical experiences. The purpose of this paper is to examine one of these limitations as it relates to planning and evaluating clinical curricula, that is the view of knowing implicit in the PBE approach. PBE approaches reflect the metaphor of science and scientific ways of knowing. It will be argued that curriculum planning strategies based on a PBE model fail to adequately address the complexity of knowing within the clinical experience and fall short of really helping clinical educators in a meaningful way. Viewing various forms of practice as art may be a useful alternative metaphor for curriculum planning and evaluation. There is reason to believe that much of what clinical educators already do is implicitly guided by this metaphor. Implications of this view for curriculum development and evaluation will be explored.

The Rise of the Science Metaphor in Medical Education

The principal aim of clinical education is to prepare individuals for occupational roles. Thus, the primary form of knowing that is stressed by clinical programs is knowing how to or what Scheffler (1965) referred to as procedural knowledge. Underlying this concern with procedural knowledge is some conception of an occupational role or model of the proficient practitioner (Segall et. al., 1975; McGaghie et. al., 1978). The model of the proficient practitioner specifies the framework upon which the structure of the professional curriculum is erected. This model rests upon some notion of the practical, as opposed to the theoretic. How one views this concept depends on the particular philosophy of knowledge upon which the practical is based. A given interpretation of the practical will reflect distinct assumptions regarding ways of knowing and how one comes to know (Van Manen, 1977).

The interpretation of the practical in clinical training has changed over the last one hundred years and, with it, the model of the proficient practitioner used to develop clinical curricula (Starr, 1982). Where clinical training was once based on apprenticeships and knowledge was craft oriented, the current model of the proficient practitioner reflects the influence of the science metaphor. The shift in clinical training from an apprenticeship model to a scientific model

brought with it a new set of assumptions with regard to the questions of what does it mean to know and what is it that is known. Central to this "professionalization" was increasing reliance on scientific knowledge. Prior to this, medicine relied on craft knowledge, unarticulated and incompletely justified. A master practitioner would have been at a loss to detail the specific "attitude, skills and knowledge" required for his or her practice, or why they may be required. It was a practice with little supporting formal theory.

What brought about a metamorphosis in medicine from craft to science was the development of and reliance upon theory. To the extent that a practice is logically deduced from an overarching body of theory, it is said to be more of a science and less a craft (Broudy, 1955). The practice of medicine is assumed to involve objective, impersonal ways of knowing which are codified in theory rather than in lore and which are subject to verification. Because it is codified in theory, it is capable of being transmitted independent of direct attachment to a master. These assumptions are widely accepted in current views of medicine as an applied science and are manifest in scientific curriculum-making strategies, such as PBE. These strategies face two crucial problems in the clinical setting - specifiability and integration.

The Problem of Specifiability

The model of the proficient practitioner used either implicitly or explicitly to structure curricula is an example of what Polanyi (1962) refers to as a "comprehensive entity". Attempts to define comprehensive entities aim at identifying their particular components, and describing the relationships between the particulars. In any attempt, however, the comprehensive entity is already recognized on the basis of its gross morphology, similar to the classification of plant life. Similarly, PBE proponents realize that they can only identify the specific aspects of the proficient practitioner when they have such an entity with which they can begin their analysis, such as the notion of expert performance (Flannagan, 1954). Without the entity as their starting point, the isolation and identification of particulars would be meaningless.

A central assumption to this approach is that the particulars of a given entity can be specified, and that learning the particulars deepens one's understanding of the larger phenomenon. However, the degree to which any entity can be specified is limited. Depending on the specific occupational role, a certain residue of particulars will always be left unspecified. What it takes to perform competently as a general internist, for example, is, to some degree, known explicitly. Yet, the rule structures do not guarantee success in the way they do, let us say, for masonry (Polanyi, 1962). Failures in medicine are frequently unexplained. One must go outside established principles of operation into the realm of theory to seek causal explanations for failure.

The second problem associated with the more general problem of specifiability rests with the notion of meaning. The meaning of a particular is dependent on the context in which it is described. Problem-solving ability in medicine is now regarded to be specific to the context in which it occurs and not a generic ability of the competent physician (Elstein, Shulman and Sprafka, 1978). The identification and recognition of particular characteristics is rendered meaningful only when considered from the perspective of a morphological given. How different morphological types are recognized as different, and similar ones as similar is not specifiable. Recognition of the proficient from the nonproficient practitioner admits of a tacit form of knowing, not able to be reduced to specific performances.

The Problem of Integration

A problem related to specifiability is that of integration. The introduction of theory into the training of physicians represents an attempt to increase the student's mastery of practice by increasing his or her understanding of the particulars of diseases. However, this knowledge does not adequately equip the student with the skill needed to recognize the disease in a patient. How a student learns to integrate "clues" manifest by a patient into a correct diagnosis cannot be entirely accounted for by inductive logic. Indeed, strict adherence to a logical form of thinking in practice may sometimes lead to plausible but erroneous conclusions (Polanyi, 1962).

The process of integration does not occur by learning the theoretical basis for disease. "Knowing that" must be complemented with practice in "knowing how to", (Ryle, 1949) achieved only by seeing patient after patient. What skillful performance feels like in medicine must be discovered for oneself. Much of it is unspecifiable and cannot be taught. Thus, the importance of acts of integration, and the fact that they are unspecifiable, are further evidence that knowing how to practice medicine involves a substantial degree of tacit knowing.

The evolution of the scientific model in physician education had the effect of introducing theory into a student's curriculum. This model was based on the assumption that what was to be learned was specifiable, and the learning of the particulars would deepen the student's understanding of disease processes. Clinical training, however, is predicated on the assumption that learning how to practice medicine requires integration. Acts of integration are fundamentally unspecifiable. They represent a tacit form of knowing which is central to the clinical experience.

In summary, there are several problems with the PBE view. In many instances what is required to do 'x' (where x is a skill) cannot be clearly specified. In addition, the process by which a learner integrates all the information gathered from solving a problem in the field cannot be clearly articulated. Hunches sometimes spring up from a dim awareness of the situation. Professional practice also involves a number of skills in which satisfactory performance is only achieved by acquiring a "feel" for the correct or most appropriate way to carry out the skill. Finally, studies in clinical problem-solving seem to suggest a way of knowing intimately associated with the context in which it occurs, rather than being objective and "out there".

Art as an Alternative Metaphor

It is widely recognized that forms of professional practice involve both artistic and scientific dimensions. These dimensions were explicit in the title of Gage's (1978) review of research on teaching. Within medicine in particular, humanism and the humanities are experiencing something of a renaissance. Certification boards are placing increasing emphasis on evaluating a resident's "humanism". It has been suggested that the preclinical preparation of the physician be more "general", with an emphasis on courses such as history, ethics and literature. Some are arguing that even the clinical education of medical students residents should include more emphasis on "non-science" topics, such as doctor-patient relationships and coping with stress. It seems clear that the literature in medical education is reflecting an increasing interest in the artistic or aesthetic dimensions of medical practice.

It is one thing to recognize the artistic aspects of medicine and its importance to practice. However, little attention has been given to the educational implications of this view, other than incorporating new courses into the preclinical curriculum. Viewing the practice of medicine as an art has profound consequences for planning and evaluating clinical curricula as well. The artistic view implies a way of knowing quite different from the scientific view. Viewed from the metaphor of art the emphasis in clinical curriculum planning should be on identifying worthwhile activities in which the clinical student can participate. Through these activities it is expected the learner will acquire the tacit knowledge necessary for the performance and assessment of one's clinical skills. What constitutes this knowledge is not entirely specifiable. Therefore, the achievement of specific behavioral or performance objectives is not stressed. Rather, the emphasis is on the practice of the performance as an entity.

Medical education has been implicitly guided by these assumptions for many years. For example, a "curriculum" might consist of a series of rotations through different clinics and wards, with little mention of specific intended outcomes. However, curriculum planners have recently suggested that this approach could be improved by adopting a PBE model. This view fails to seriously take into consideration the assumptions implicit in these "process" oriented plans. Clinical curriculum work should be directed towards identifying those activities which allow for the practice of the general skills desirable - the "knowing how to". For example, it is probably sufficient to say the student should be proficient in diagnosing and treating common skin disorders. Little is gained by reducing this statement to a series of readily observable performances. The general statement allows one to clearly identify what activities will be most educative. More than that is probably not helpful, desirable, or even theoretically possible.

In terms of evaluation, the artistic metaphor places stress on criticism (Willis, 1978) or connoisseurship (Eisner, 1979) rather than specific behavioral measures with clearly defined psychometric properties, such as checklists and behavioral rating scales (Neufeld and Norman, 1985). In contrast to the dispassionate observer implied in the scientific metaphor, the critic must possess considerable familiarity with and experience in that which is being assessed. This assumption is reflected in the continued reliance on teaching physicians to assess a trainee's performance, despite a plethora of "objective" assessment tools. The teacher-evaluator is intimately involved in the practice of medicine. In assessing a trainee's performance an evaluator will generally stress overall patterns and relationships, rather than particulars. In so doing it is recognized that the proficient practitioner is more than just the sum of discrete performances. Rather, there is something unique and irreducible about the performance as a whole. What this something is may be known by the trainee and the evaluator, but is not readily articulated. That is, it is tacit. Through criticism, aspects of this knowledge may be illuminated, but never entirely specified.

Conclusion

It is argued in this paper that knowing in clinical training involves recognition of comprehensive entities, a fundamentally personal way of knowing. PBE strategies, guided by the metaphor of science, mistakenly assume specifiability where it is severely circumscribed, and places emphasis on analysis when what is required is integration. In short, several of the assumptions of the PBE approach are inconsistent with the nature of knowing in the clinical experience.

For purposes of planning and evaluating clinical curricula, it is suggested that educators, in addition to using a science metaphor, adopt the metaphor of art as a means of viewing certain aspects of practice. The art metaphor stresses the deeply personal ways of knowing that are essential to practice. Curriculum planning and evaluation must take into account these personal forms of knowing.

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THE CONTINUING EDUCATION OF CLERGY:

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

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THE CONTINUING EDUCATION OF CLERGY:

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

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The growing interest in continuing professional education (CPE) has led to the exploration and development of this topic within specific professional groups. One group deserving of attention, but which raises at the same time some questions not always significant for other professions, is the clergy--pastors, ministers, priests, and others who have received ordination or licensure within a religious body. The first question that must be answered is whether clergy can appropriately be called a professional group. Since there are legitimate differences of opinion on this subject, the term continuing education (CE) rather than CPE will be used in this review. A second confounding factor is that there is little similarity in preprofessional (or to avoid the use of "professional," pre-ordination or pre-certification) training. Mainline denominations have a more consistent pattern of four years of training after college (including one year of internship). This type of training will generally be assumed in this review.

Another factor that confounds the issue of CE of clergy in comparison with CPE in other groups is the variety of possible sources of concern and programs. While most professions have one or, at most, a few professional organizations which provide a certain coherence to the discipline and its various fields of study, such unifying factors do not exist among the clergy. Each denomination is an entity unto itself, and there exists among denominations a wide variety of polity arrangements--the way congregations and pastors relate to geographic and national headquarters. In addition to this vagueness of authority, or maybe as a result of this vagueness, a great amount of material which discusses the CE of clergy is hortatory (there should be CE of clergy) or programmatic (this is how CE should be conducted); a considerable amount is descriptive of specific, often isolated programs or courses (a number of such sources also being self-congratulatory in the process); and a smaller amount yet provides the type of information which can provide a basis for a general presentation of the topic under consideration.

In light of this rather confused and amorphous situation, certain restrictions and limitations have been placed on the selection of literary sources for this review. Since the largest amount of material falls into the category of "hortatory and programmatic," the greatest caution has had to be applied to this section. Those items which are primarily hortatory, saying little more than there is a need for CE of clergy, have been excluded. Those sources that are programmatic in nature have been selected, especially those which attempt to lay out some type of rational and coherent approach to the provision of CE of clergy. To avoid undue repetition, more recent writings in the field and those that make some significant contribution have

been included. The following limitations were also applied: articles discussing pre-ordination theological education were excluded unless they had something significant to say also about CE; nothing is included that deals only with lay religious education; sources are limited to those pertinent to North America; and generally speaking, articles were not used which described specific programs or the work of specific denominations.

Due to space limitations required for these proceedings, and in order to include a complete bibliography, the review is presented here in outline form.

- I. Programmatic and Prescriptive Writings--These address the goal, purpose, and rationale of CE of clergy. They also provide definition, need, direction, and planning guidelines. Sources which fit here include Rouch (1980), Rouch (1984), Gustafson (1970), Wagoner (1970), Stewart (1974), Gamble (1976), Houts (1979), Howe (1960), and Rouch (1976-1977).
- II. Participation and Other Data-Based Studies--These are descriptive presentations and analyses of the state of the CE of clergy and include Gamble (1960a, 1968), Mills and Hesser (1972), Bonn (1975), and Hollister (1968).
- III. Types of Continuing Education--A considerable amount has been written about how continuing education programs should be organized and offered to pastors. These typologies or models are both prescriptive and descriptive. Surveys and more comprehensive materials include Stewart (1974), Adams (1966), Fund for Theological Education (1964), and Gamble (1976-1977a). Others have described specific types of programs:
 - A. Clinical Pastoral Education--Klink (1970), Leslie and Mugg (1970), Clinebell (1970), Howe (1970), and Wise (1970).
 - B. Doctor of Ministry programs and degrees--Lewis (1981), Hougland (1976), Miller (1976), Nichols (1976), Taylor (1976), Marty et al. (1976), and Nichols (1978).
 - C. Theological Education by Extension--Weld (1973, 1983), Kinsler (1983), Rigdon and Hollaway (1983), and Corbett and Kush (1983).
 - D. Other Types: Action training--Younger (1971); urban training centers--Luecke (1970); contextual education--Halvorson (1970); planned change (role socialization)--Mills (1971); systems model--Rouch (1969).
- IV. Other articles--A number of other matters, concerns, and issues have been addressed by various writers: history of the CE movement--Frerichs (1976-1977); past, present, and future of CE--Gamble (1976-1977a); CE of black clergy--James (1970); seminary libraries and CE--Gamble (1960b).

Although the author found more literature than originally anticipated, he found that much of it was relatively old. Some articles written in the

1970's said little more than those written in the 1960's. On the other hand, little has been added in the 1980's. Much of the literature found was purely hortatory, reflecting an obvious felt need but adding little of substance to fill the apparant void. Very few of the writings were data-based, while a large number of articles described specific programs but added little to the general state of the art. Some descriptions were quite objective, although others were little more than self-congratulatory reflections. Several needs have become apparent. First, a more general description of the actual, current status of CE of clergy, based on accurate data, is required. Such information will make possible the meeting of a second deficit: an organization or classification of types and levels of CE offerings and opportunities. Thirdly, more comprehensive models are required that will provide programs that will reach all pastors, not just those in populous areas near institutions, and which don't foster only special content areas. In particular, there is a need for more specific suggestions and plans for individualized CE.

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A PLANNING AND EVALUATION MODEL
FOR PARISH PROGRAMS

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A PLANNING AND EVALUATION MODEL FOR PARISH PROGRAMS

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While there is a plethora of material available to parish planners to be used among children and youth, the selection for adults is much more limited, both in quantity and scope. Such a circumstance leaves those responsible for planning, developing, and implementing programs for and with adults very much to their own devices. How can these persons judge whether they are, in fact, reaching and serving their target population? How can they determine what new programs might be productively undertaken?

The program planning and evaluation model described in this presentation is intended to serve that purpose. By examining the intersection of three parameters--congregational function, sociological circumstance, and psychological concern--planners can evaluate whether current programs are on target in terms of goals and objectives and what areas require implementation or further development. This paper outlines the major periods of adult development and relates the periods of adult development to congregational planning, using the Program Planning and Evaluation Matrix.

Characteristics of Adult Development

In the last twenty years considerable research has been conducted which has demonstrated that the adult period of life is anything but static, an assumption which had been held by many who, although they were aware of the development of children and the decline of old age, considered the adult years to be a time of general stability. This research has led to a new understanding of adult development. This study has taken different tacks. Some theorists, such as Cross (1981), would divide these studies into two categories: phase and stage. Phase theories are age-related and horizontal. Although the age categories must be regarded as general, with many individuals falling outside of special age limits, the sequence is applicable to all. Everyone passes through the "seasons" of life. Stage theories, on the other hand, are seen as vertical. All persons start at the same place, but they progress at different rates and achieve different levels. Few accomplish movement or transition through all levels.

As useful as this construct is, some theories, especially those of Erikson (1950) and Jung (1971), don't seem to fit. They have elements of both. Therefore, Troll (1982) has suggested a tripartite schema: stages, life situations, and issues. In an effort to avoid confusion, the outline of adult development presented here will divide the adult span of life into three time frames--early, middle, and late--and each time frame into psychological concerns and sociological circumstances. The work of Erikson (1950) will serve as a basis and model for the former, while the developmental tasks of Havighurst (1953) and seasons of Levinson and others (1978) will be

representative studies used for the latter. The work of these and other researchers is covered in a useful discussion by Merriam (1984a).

According to Erikson the struggle of young adulthood is intimacy versus isolation. As the adolescent enters the adult world, s/he desires and seeks an intimate relationship with a significant other. The struggle arises from the fact that s/he is also striving to develop independence from parents and other adults responsible for his/her growth during the childhood years and to establish an identity as a person of value and worth. Too much emphasis on independence could lead to isolation and the loss of intimacy.

Levinson sees this transition from adolescence to young adulthood as the period of leaving home (17-22) and entering the adult world (22-28). During this time the individual develops his/her "dream," selects a mentor, chooses a mate, and seeks an occupation. After a second period of transition (28-33), the individual enters a second structuring period in which s/he adjusts the dream and establishes self in an occupation (33-40).

The developmental tasks which Havighurst assigns to this period are selecting a mate, learning to relate to one's spouse, starting a family, raising children, establishing a home, selecting an occupation, entering into civic and social responsibilities, and entering into significant social relationships with others. A fuller description of this developmental period can be found in Merriam (1984b).

Middle Adulthood, according to Erikson, is marked by the struggle between generativity and stagnation. For many this is spelled out in the rearing and parenting of children, but it is not restricted or limited to familial activity. During this time the person begins to make significant contributions to society and is productive at the work place. Failure to give of oneself to others causes one to "die on the vine" prematurely. The middle-aged person must also learn to cope with the decline of parents, and s/he often is faced with the necessity of restructuring his/her value system.

Levinson picks up on some of these same themes as he demonstrates by positing a second major transition period, this from early to middle adulthood (40-45). This transition is marked by leaving, or at least altering one's relationship with, the mentor. The subsequent period of structure (45-50) was described by many of Levinson's subjects as the happiest of their lives. They were making meaningful contributions, raising their family, and becoming mentors in their own right. After a mid-life transition (50-55), adults start to look forward to their declining years, making preparation for retirement.

In keeping with Erikson and Levinson, Havighurst describes the developmental tasks of middle adulthood as: achieving civic and social responsibility, maintaining oneself at an appropriate economic level, helping teenage children enter the adult world, developing adult leisure-time activities, learning to relate to one's mate as a partner, accepting and adjusting to physiological change, and adjusting to aging parents.

Old age is seen by Erikson as a period of culmination. The task is ego integrity instead of despair. One comes to accept his/her life and even to

embrace it. One makes sense of his/her life by rehearsing it. One comes to accept one's mortality and the inevitability of death. Failure to go through this integrative process leads to despair. Peck (1968) expands on this concept by pointing out that a person must also face the realities of an adjusted attitude toward work (work transcendence), whether the new situation be retirement or a different job which is less taxing physically, and a new perception of one's physical self (body transcendence) which recognizes and accepts physical decline and weakening.

Aisde from stating that a major transition occurs from middle to old age (60-65), Levinson does not describe old age. Oddly enough, the same is true of Jung (1971), who explicates the psychological territory of youth and middle age, but stops there. Jung leaves some clues, however. He pictures life as a day, existing from the rising of the sun to its setting. Youth is the period of ascendancy. The middle years are the noon of life in which the individual sheds his/her warmth and light on others. As the sun of life sets, the individual turns inward and becomes more reflective.

Havighurst does list tasks for this period, however. They are adjustment to physiological decline, adjustment to retirement and altered income, adjustment to the death of a spouse, establishing meaningful social relationships with one's age group, and making appropriate civic and social contributions.

This is, in brief, the process of adult development. We now turn to an outline of the role and function of the Christian congregation and see how knowledge of adult development can assist in congregational program planning.

Parish Program Planning

The third parameter necessary for the development of the Program Planning and Evaluation Matrix is the purpose and function of a congregation. Each parish possesses in its Articles of Incorporation and/or Constitution a statement of mission. This statement must serve as the basis for all work carried out by that parish. Upon that foundation can be built a set of functions designed to accomplish the congregation's mission. A number of useful typologies have been developed; however, one has been chosen here for the purpose of illustrating this parameter of the matrix. This organizational pattern is suggested in the New Testament and embraces the functions of preaching (kerygma), teaching (didache), fellowship (koinonia), witness (martyria), and service (diakonia). There is a separate word for worship (leitourgia), but this can be conceptually embraced by several of the previous functions. If this organizational model is used as a guideline, based on a congregation's theological assumptions and guided by its statement of mission or purpose, then the congregation can enter into meaningful and purposeful program planning and evaluation.

It is at this point that knowledge of the phases of adult development can be introduced. One is dealing with three sets of factors: 1) psychological concerns, 2) sociological circumstances, and 3) congregational functions. These three sets of factors can be presented in the form of a matrix which can serve as a model for program planning and evaluation.

The matrix, first developed for, and applied to, programming among young adults (see Merriam and Ferro, 1985), must first be completed. Along one face (A-E) are listed the congregational functions. Along the second (1-8) are listed sociological circumstances, and along the third (I-III) are listed psychological concerns. Usually the list of congregational functions will remain constant, but the other two faces will change, depending upon the period of adult life development with which one is working while planning and evaluating program offerings.

Using this matrix or model, it is possible to illustrate congregational program planning and evaluation for each phase of adult development. An example for each of the three major periods of adulthood is provided for that purpose. By entering the appropriate information for young adults, we discover an intersection of fellowship, intimacy, and establishing meaningful relationships with one's social group. This might suggest a program whereby young adults are brought together for meaningful social activity. Possibilities might be monthly dances or a ski week-end. If the latter, the total program might include an ice-breaker party on Friday evening and an informal worship service early Saturday evening in addition to fun on the slopes and elsewhere. Such planning was prefaced by the evaluative function of determining that such a need was not currently being met by the congregation.

Moving to middle adulthood, one nexus created by inserting appropriate psychological concerns and sociological circumstances would be teaching, genuineness, and learning to relate to one's mate as a partner. A significant program would be an eight or twelve-week series, or even a week-end retreat, emphasizing Christian marriage enrichment or renewal. Obviously, other interfaces impinge: fellowship is achieved, as is worship on a week-end retreat, and social and leisure-time activities can be included.

Similar use can be made in planning for older adults. A nexus which one might choose is that of service, ego-integrity, and making significant civic and social contributions. A program might be developed which would bring together the older adults and teen-agers. By sharing their life stories, seniors could enrich the perspectives of teenagers who often are more ready to listen to and share with persons the age of their grandparents than they are with persons the age of their parents. Teenagers and seniors also share some similar concerns about sexuality and about their roles in society. By coming together, they can support one another.

This model serves not only as an evaluation instrument for program planning. It can also serve as a means of evaluating existing activities. Current programs can be assessed to determine if they are appropriate and effective (Do they fit into one of the interfaces?). If they do not fit congregational functions, psychological concerns, and sociological circumstances, they should be monitored closely and, where appropriate, be dropped or altered.

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LITERACY AND AGING

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LITERACY AND AGING

Estimates which place the number of functional illiterates between one-third and one-half of the older adult population contrast sharply with the United States Office of Education report that only 3.45% of the adult basic education enrollment in 1977 consisted of adults 65 years of age and above (Kasworm, 1981, p. 9). This discrepancy between the high number of older adults who lack functional literacy skills and the low number who participate in adult basic education activities provides the rationale for efforts designed to increase the participation of older adults in literacy training and introduces the question as to what effect the absence of literacy skills has on an older adult.

Definition of Literacy

Definitions of literacy tend to be characterized by their generality: for example, Bormuth defined it as the ability to "respond appropriate to written language" (1973, p. 9). In contrast, definitions of functional literacy carry the connotation of greater specificity and purposefulness: during World War II, the U.S. Army defined a functional illiterate as one who could not understand written instructions adequately to perform basic military tasks (Kirsch & Guthrie, 1977, p. 488). In the process of operationalizing the definition of literacy to gain greater utility, the definition of functional illiteracy has been rendered dependent on the nature of the task for which literacy is necessary, the social context in which it occurs, and the rigor of the demands which both task and context place upon the individual.

Measures of Literacy

In an overview of measures designed to assess or quantify levels of literacy, one encounters the absence of any generally agreed upon scale of the ability to read or write. One measure frequently used is educational attainment. In 1947, the United States Bureau of the Census used the term functional illiterate to refer to anyone "who had completed fewer than five years of elementary school, on the assumption that this correlated with an inability to comprehend simple written instructions" (Levine, 1982, p. 250). In the 1970 Census, the criterion was raised to six or more years of school (Kirsch and Guthrie, 1978).

A second measure of literacy is the assessment of a person's ability to read at a particular grade level, as distinguished from completing that number of years of school. As in the case with educational attainment, however, there is little evidence to indicate that "grade equivalency scores are sufficient for adequate performance with real life reading tasks" (Kirsch and Guthrie, 1978, p. 495).

A third measure of literacy is that associated with the successful performance of certain tasks or activities. Lichtman's (1974) Reading/Everyday Activities in Life (R/EAL) placed emphasis on the performance of reading tasks directly related to practical real life experiences by assessing the ability of subjects to read material selected from such common daily reading activities

as food store advertisements, directions for preparation of food, want ads, leases, maps, etc.

In 1970, the National Reading Council commissioned Lou Harris and Associates (1970) to conduct a study to determine the proportion of Americans with literacy skills adequate to survive in this country. "Survival" was defined operationally as a person's ability to complete application forms for public assistance, Medicaid, a driver's license, a personal bank loan, and an identification form similar to that required for social security.

The Final Report of the Adult Performance Level Study indicated that "functional competency is composed of an application of the communication skills, computation, problem solving, and interpersonal relations to the general knowledge areas of occupational knowledge, consumer economics, community resources, government and law, and health" (1977, p. 9). The criterion of competence was a success index composed of income, level of education, and occupational status.

While these and other criterion-referenced tests make a significant contribution to our understanding of the components of functional literacy among adults generally, they are not without their limitations: 1) adults are a heterogeneous population with diverse literacy needs derived from specific situations which may not be susceptible to accurate description in such broad taxonomies; 2) the specific criteria reflect the perspectives of the authors, as in the case of the survival documents chosen by Harris, or the criteria for success in the APL study; 3) the criteria are related to the purpose for which the instrument was developed: providing information to a prospective employer may require different criteria from a national literacy survey or a survey of the reading needs of adults; and 4) the criteria frequently include both reading and writing skills as well as a broader listing of cognitive and communication skills, further complicating the development of clear distinctions between literacy, functional literacy, and functional competency.

Literacy Among Older Adults

The principal problem confronted by the researcher in considering the role of literacy in the lives of older adults is the irrelevance of the tools which are available. The use of grade level or grade level equivalence to describe the level of literacy of an older adult relies on a measure not designed for that purpose applied to the person approximately one-half century earlier. Much of the literature describing functional literacy understands it in relation to tasks and social contexts which are foreign to most older adults. No research has been conducted to support the relevance of the Harris version of survival or the Adult Performance Level version of success for the older adult. Courtenay, Stevenson, and Suhart concluded that adequate definitions and measures of functional literacy designed specifically for older adults were nonexistent (1982).

In the absence of a broad research effort designed to examine the literacy needs of older adults, assumptions about them have developed. One is that older adults must be "functionally literate," that is, according to Rigg and Kazemek, "they must be able to read a variety of forms and instructions in order to function at all, to fill out a welfare application form, for example,

or to read a doctor's list of recommended foods" (1983, p. 417). Any older adult not able to perform these tasks may be classed as deficient. Another is that like adults in general, the literacy needs of the elderly can be described in a fixed taxonomy; educational activities can then be designed to assist them reach a prescribed level of competency.

Little is known about the reading habits, needs, and interests of older persons on the basis of empirical research. A survey of the literature indicates that reading fulfills the need for 1) entertainment and enjoyment of leisure time; 2) information, knowledge and intellectual curiosity; 3) cultural development; 4) companionship and formation of social contacts; 5) overcoming generational lag and conflict; 6) deriving satisfaction from one's ability to read and understand; 7) increasing awareness of food and nutrition; 8) personal renewal; 9) enhancing the lives of those in retirement centers and nursing homes; 10) wise consumerism; and 11) coping with life as an older adult.

Harvey and Dutton concluded that older adults "do not enjoy science fiction books, depressing books, books that are frank about sex or contain violence, or books that have confusing plots or many characters" and "do prefer to read light romance with no sex, biographies, books in large print, westerns, mysteries, travel books, fiction, the Bible and the newspaper" (1979, p. 213).

Considerable disagreement may be found in the research findings describing the reading habits of older adults. Romani notes that a retired person spends more of his/her leisure time reading than he/she did prior to retirement (1973, p. 391). Pfeiffer and Davis in a study of 502 subjects aged 45 to 69, found that the time spent in reading was significantly greater in the older age groups than the 8.3 hours per week for men and the 9.0 hours per week for women in the sample as a whole (1971, p. 190). Conversely, Sharon found that "young adults tend to read more than older persons, while the very old spend the least amount of time on reading," with persons over 60 averaging 89 minutes per day, compared with one hour and 46 minutes for the average American on a typical day (1973, pp. 157-8). According to Kingston, the reading behavior of the aged reflects and relates closely to previous reading habits, education, and socioeconomic status (1979, p. 206). Conversely, retirement may stimulate new reading patterns that were not evident previously, according to Monroe, cited in Romani (1973).

Similar lack of unanimity is to be found in the literature describing the impact of literacy on the older adult. On the one hand, the literature is replete with superlatives describing the positive impact of reading activities on the lives of older adults. Examples include "enhancing their lives" (Lovelace, 1979), providing a "social outlet" (Wilson, 1979), assisting them to be creative and function at their maximum capability (Romani, 1973), fulfilling their lifelong needs and providing a coping mechanism pertinent to the problems of aging (Wolf, 1977), and providing "literary experiences that elevate" (Gentile and McMillan, 1979).

Another point of view which describes literacy skills as having less significant impact on the life of the older adult has also been articulated. Courtenay, Stevenson, and Suhart observed that "in one sense the mere fact

that an individual has survived for 60, 70, 80 years implies at least some degree of past functional competence" (1982, p. 344) and Kasworm asserted that "lack of basic literacy skill has not deterred many older adults from living their lives as productive, successful adults" (1981, p. 10).

Implications for Practice

The literature describes a high level of functional illiteracy among older adults coupled with a low level of participation in literacy training, the absence of definitions and measures of literacy suitable for use with older adults, little information about older adults' reading needs or habits, and lack of unanimity on the impact or contribution which literacy skills may make to the life of an older adult. What inferences may be drawn from this discrepancy between the apparent need for literacy services by a large proportion of the older adult population and the lack of response of those who possess this need?

First, the need may be incorrectly measured or its significance incorrectly assessed. Educators and other professionals working with older adults may have a vision of this population which is not necessarily shared by the population itself. Heisel and Larson found in their study of the black elderly that "using educational data alone we might predict that most of the black elderly included in this study would be unable to cope with the literacy demands of their daily lives" (1984, p. 69). However, most of these subjects were satisfied that their reading skills were improving and that they were meeting their own literacy needs. Courtenay et al. (1982) and Kasworm (1981) have acknowledged that lack of literacy skills may not inhibit older adults from being functionally competent or productive persons.

Second, the needed educational program may be inappropriately planned or delivered. The incompatibility between the learning needs of older adults and the subject matter of adult basic education materials is frequently cited (Kasworm and Courtenay, 1982; Courtenay, Stevenson, and Suhart, 1982). Rigg and Kazemek asserted that "literacy programs are developed for the elderly by those who think they know what is best for the elderly (1983, p. 420). It may be necessary to consider the literacy needs of older adults separate from those of the adult population in general and to be increasingly sensitive to their peculiar motivations for participation in literacy training.

Third, the conditions in which many older adults live may not support literacy or educational efforts. Baltes and Schaie (1974) have pointed to the absence of reinforcement or rewards for learning as well as environments which are "intellectually and socially impoverished" as failing to be conducive to intellectual growth. Practitioners and service providers may enhance the use and acquisition of literacy skills by providing an environment in which older adults are provided the opportunity and the expectation to employ those skills which they possess.

Solutions to the problem of increasing participation by older adults in literacy training will become more apparent when a more precise understanding of the literacy needs of older adults and of the impact of the presence of literacy skills on their aging has been developed.

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ADULT RETURNING STUDENTS:
BARRIERS TO LEARNING
PERSISTENCE AND WITHDRAWAL

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ADULT RETURNING STUDENTS:
BARRIERS TO LEARNING, PERSISTENCE AND WITHDRAWAL

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Background and Purpose

For the past fifteen years large numbers of adults have been returning to colleges and universities to continue their education, and projections by The National Center for Educational Statistics (1982) indicate this trend will continue. For the most part these students are twenty-five years of age and older, have been out of school for some time, have various worker and family roles (Scott, 1979; Astin, 1976; Apps, 1981), and most have returned to school for job-related reasons.

Although the increasing numbers of returning adult students have been well-documented, and studies about returning students (particularly women) have been abundant (see Wells, 1974; Tittle & Denker, 1979, 1977; Scott, 1979 for literature reviews), research into barriers met by returning students and changes in those barriers over time has been fragmented, and research into the relationship between barriers and persistence/withdrawal has been non-existent.

Therefore, the objectives of this research were threefold: 1) to determine the major barriers perceived by adults who return to school, 2) to study change in the perception of major barriers over time, and 3) to test for a relationship between perceived barriers and persistence/withdrawal.

Literature Review and Research Expectations

Two literature traditions have contributed to this research topic: barrier literature and persistence/withdrawal literature. Contributions to the barrier literature have been made from three perspectives: participation research on potential students, literature on adults who have returned to school, and a particularly voluminous research area of returning women students. The areas which have contributed most to the persistence/withdrawal literature have been studies of adult education classes such as adult literacy studies, non-credit offerings and adult evening classes; studies of college attrition (undergraduate and graduate); studies of adult students returning to higher education.

While theory in adult education is slight (Meziro, 1971; Dickenson and Rusnell, 1971; Cross, 1982), there has been some theory-testing and attempt to build theory with regard to barriers and to persistence/withdrawal of adult learners. Most of these attempts have been influenced by the field of psychology. Explaining human behavior as the interaction between an

individual and the environment, theorists have posited various strengths of relationship between the individual and the environment, most implying that the stronger the individual's motivation, the more likely the individual would be to overcome the environmental barriers. Rubenson (1977), Cross (1982), and Tinto (1978) have included this theoretical stance in their models of why people participate, persist or withdraw from learning activities. The assumption underlying this position is that if one wants something badly enough, one can attain it, regardless of the barriers met. This emphasis on the relationship between motivation and achievement can be questioned.

First, while attempts to measure motivational level in terms of students' own expectations about their chances of dropping out have demonstrated that students who have moderately low expectations of success are most likely to drop out, for the most part, motivational factors have not been established as related to attrition (Pantages & Creedon, 1978, p. 71). Second, literature on returning students from both the barrier and persistence/withdrawal perspectives has raised some questions with regard to these assumptions. Adult returning students, rather than citing motivational reasons, cite lack of time, cost, home and job responsibilities, classroom settings, psychological reasons and illness as reasons for not participating and as barriers once they have returned to school (Apps, 1979; Illinois, 1980; Cross & Zusman, 1979; Astin, 1976), and as reasons for dropping out (Long, 1983; Feldman, 1973).

Unlike the motivational models which suggested internal forces as the primary factors in persistence/withdrawal, the adult returning student literature suggests considering the importance of circumstances external to the individual. This research was an attempt to do just that.

This research addressed the following questions:

1. What were the major barriers perceived by adults who had returned to school?
2. Did those barriers change over time?
3. Was there a relationship between perceived barriers and persistence?

Research expectations derived from the barrier and persistence/withdrawal literature were as follows:

1. Situational barriers would be more problematic than psychosocial or institutional barriers.
2. Women would cite more family-related barriers; men more job or institution-related barriers.

3. Institutional barriers would lessen in severity over time.

4. If, as descriptive studies indicated, barriers experienced while a student and reasons given for dropping out were basically the same, and were primarily situational, then

a. the situational barriers could be expected to either stay the same or increase in severity over time, and

b. situational barriers would be related to persistence/withdrawal, with those persons who withdrew perceiving the most difficulty with situational barriers.

Study Sample and Methodology

The sample for the study was obtained by taking a stratified random sample of returning adult graduate students (25 years of age and older, U.S. citizens with at least three years interruption in their schooling) in the School of Education and the College of Agricultural and Life Sciences at the University of Wisconsin-Madison.

Forty-three returning adult students were interviewed twice, once in the first semester of their return to school, and one year later. At the time of the interviews, students were asked to complete a biographical information sheet and a 25-item barriers to learning instrument compiled from the literature review. Information on persistence or withdrawal was gathered from institutional records. Persons who had withdrawn from school were contacted by telephone to ascertain their reasons for leaving school, and whether they intended to return.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for statistical computations. Chi-square, T-tests and non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to analyze the data.

Results and Implications

Analysis of the results demonstrated that the major barriers faced by adults returning to school were primarily related to their adult role situations. The most severe barriers in both Time 1 and Time 2 of the data collection included balancing family and school time, balancing job and school time, and spending time with the immediate family. Stress, which was the most severe of all the barriers was explained by the participants as the result of balancing their multiple roles. While the major barriers did not change over the course of the year, one barrier increased significantly in severity of problem, balancing family and school time.

Of the 43 students participating in the study, only three withdrew. Therefore, a statistical relationship between the perceived barriers and persistence/withdrawal could not be analyzed for this population. (In another part of this study there were 90 returning adult students who were interviewed once, in the first semester of their return. Persistence and withdrawal data on that population allowed analysis of relationship between barriers and persistence/withdrawal.) Of those who withdrew, two had stopped out, that is, intended to return to school at some future time. One was female, age 28 married, with one child under 5 years of age, a part-time student in the School of Education; the other was male, age 28, married with one child under 5 years of age, a part-time student in the College of Agricultural and Life Sciences. Both were employed full-time and both gave the birth of a new child (twins for the male) as the only reason for stopping out. The person who dropped out (that is, did not intend to return to school at all), was female, age 30, was married at the time of the first interview and separated at the time of the second interview, had not children, was employed full-time and was a part-time student in the School of Education. Getting married was the only reason given by this person for dropping out.

As expected, situational barriers were perceived as more serious than institutional barriers in Time 1 and Time 2, and with the exception of balancing family and school time which increased in severity, situational barriers remained the same over time. Women did not cite family-related barriers more than did men, nor was there a difference between women and men on the severity of job-related barriers. One particular facet of situational barriers decreased in severity over time, skill-related barriers: concentration while studying, reading skills and study skills. Institutional barriers decreased in severity over time, particularly difficulty with registration procedures and obtaining campus and graduate school information.

The most severe barriers in Time 1 and Time 2 were not only situational, but, in particular, were related to the multiple roles which returning adults occupy. Yet, both the theory and practice of adult education tend to proceed from the assumption that the student role is the primary role which the person occupies. In fact, this is not so, and the findings of this research begin to raise that issue. Research must consider the many roles of the adult education participant in its research models if it is to adequately represent the adult reality. Practice too, must become more aware of the inter-relationship between adult roles and barriers adults meet in participating as well as issues of adult roles and persistence/withdrawal.

Specifically, this research challenges colleges and universities to consider the premises on which they make decisions and carry out policy. Are the adult returning students being considered? This research suggests that because of role-related issues, changes in ways of operating may be called for. For example, these students may take years of three credits a semester

to finish a degree or may attend school, stop out, return again. These patterns call for consideration of residency, of department requirements, of new curriculum structures, questioning of how learning takes place over a long span of time. For teachers of returning students, change from traditional ways, not to mention change of attitudes, may be called for by the inability of the older students to always attend class regularly, to meet assignment deadlines or to appear for tests as scheduled.

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Beyond Relevance:
Math as Inquiry for Specially Challenged Adults

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Beyond Relevance: Math as Inquiry for Specially Challenged Adults

Mathematics Education for specially challenged adults requires different objectives, activities, assessments and materials than those found in most adult math curricula. This paper discusses this hypothesis in terms of the nature of mathematics, adult mathematics curricula currently in use and the needs and characteristics of specially challenged adults. There are many opportunities for research and development of methods and materials.

Nature of Mathematics

Michael Guillen, in Bridges to Infinity, 1983, has noted that although mathematics cannot prove or disprove the existence of real things, every mathematical discovery has been found to describe the real world. For example, the Arab algebraists of the Middle Ages found that the solutions of some quadratic equations were the square roots of negative numbers. They named these numbers the imaginary numbers because they could not imagine how such numbers could be real. Then in 1905, Einstein published his special theory of relativity. He described a space-time continuum wherein the location of any thing can only be specified by giving its position and the time it is there. The spatial location is measured along the real number line and the temporal location along a scale of the imaginary numbers.

Plato and his philosophical descendents stated the principle of plenitude: If something can be conceived, then it must exist somewhere. This is not verifiable for the imagination in general; no unicorns or mermaids have been found. The historical verity of this principle when applied to the products of mathematics, however, has led Guillen to suppose that our rational imagination is a sixth sense. Therefore, "...mathematical ideas turn out to be realistic ... because they are not merely inventions, but observations.... The coincidence between the real world and the perceptions of this sixth sense is the same kind of coincidence that exists between the real world and our sensory perceptions of sight, sound, taste, feel and smell." (Guillen, 1983)

The supposition that rational imagination is a sixth sense has two immediate consequences for math education. First, mathematics is a method of perceiving the world and discovering interrelationships. For our mathematics curriculum to be complete, it must give students opportunities to exercise and refine their rational imaginations as well as teaching them computational skills. Second, if the imagination is a sixth sense, teachers should be able to help students develop that sense much as music teachers help students train their hearing or woodworking teachers train the sense of touch in finishing wood.

Lancelot Hogben taught math from an historical perspective. He pointed out that the math of any society is embedded in its culture. For example, the priests of ancient Egypt developed practical rules of geometry and astronomy to predict the floods of the Nile and lay out farmers' fields after the flood washed away the boundary lines. In our world, math is an essential part of daily life. But it is also the most powerful tool of modern technology. Hogben explains that when the mathematicians divorce themselves from the daily life of their society, their math becomes superstition. The Greeks of Pythagoras' school did this by making the practical geometry of the Egyptians into a mystical cabala. Conversely, if the citizens segregate themselves from the mathematics of their society, they lose control of their technocracy. "No society, least of all so intricate and and mechanized a society as ours, is safe in the hands of a few clever people." (Hogben, 1937) The implication is that mathematics curricula must teach more than the arithmetic of bank statements. Teachers must prepare their students to understand and make judgements on the course of technology.

Mathematics Education

We prepare to teach mathematics by analyzing the field in terms of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Cognitive Domain, and Piaget's developmental stages of cognitive development. Objectives of math education may be categorized as follows:

Level 1. Knowledge of basic facts of arithmetic, math terminology and common algorithms.

Level 2. Comprehension, the ability to solve arithmetic problems.

Level 3. Application of arithmetic skills to story problems and simulations of life situations.

Level 4. Analysis of complex problems into simple parts and solving them in logical order.

Level 5. Synthesis, the derivation of a set of abstract relations. There are two subcategories, one in which the student begins with concrete data which are to be classified, ordered and explained and the other in which the student begins with some number of basic propositions or symbolic representations from which he or she must deduce other propositions or relations.

Level 6. Evaluation of methods, processes and formulae used to synthesize relations.

Piaget's view that people develop through basic stages in their cognitive abilities gives us a framework for using Bloom's taxonomy to write objectives for specially challenged adults at the level of development they have reached. The sensori-motor, preverbal stage of infants is followed by the preoperational stage in which children use words as symbolic representations of reality but perform no abstract mental operations manipulating only symbols. In stage three, the concrete operational, a person forms concepts from physical operations and is beginning to form the abstract generalizations of classifying, ordering, and the elementary logic of classes and sets. Some of the aged, many of the developmentally disabled, the people suffering from schizophrenia and other specially challenged adults seem to operate at this level. Stage four is the formal operational stage. A person reasons with ideas rather than with concrete objects.

Piaget identified four factors which influence cognitive development: (a) Maturation of the nervous system. (b) Experience, both physical experience which influences the learner and logical-mathematical experience wherein the learner acts upon the objects. (c) Social transmission, imparting knowledge by language. It is important to note here that the learner cannot receive knowledge at any higher level than she or he has attained in cognitive development. Every teacher has had the experience of explaining how to perform a particular task and finding the student unable to understand the explanation. (d) Equilibration. This is a fundamental factor in development. One form of equilibration is the coordination of the first three factors. For example, members of my class successfully follow my leading questions (social transmission) and identify the pattern in a sequence of diagrams (physical experience). They draw the next diagrams in the sequence (logical mathematical experience). If the students can explain the rule for producing the sequence, I infer that they are functioning at the concrete operational level of cognitive development.

The other form of equilibration means the person is developing feed-back and feed-forward. The student assimilates information from the environment which conflicts with present ideas and concepts. Equilibration occurs as she or he learns to accommodate structures and concepts to the new information. To illustrate, after lessons on the logic of classes, I have the students ponder Russell's barber. He lives in a town where men who don't shave themselves are shaved by the barber and the barber only shaves men who don't shave themselves. Who shaves the barber? If he shaves himself, he can't be shaved by the barber, which means he can't shave himself. If he doesn't shave himself, he is shaved by

the barber, and he therefore is shaving himself. Equilibration occurs as the students assimilate this contradiction and accommodate their conceptions of logic to include the idea that 'being logical' can lead to quite illogical conclusions. (Gardner, 1982)

Adult Mathematics Curricula

Number Power and Essential Math for Life are typical adult math curricula. They are relevant to adult life in the USA and are designed to prepare students for the world of work. These texts emphasize basic computational skills, practice using the common algorithms, decoding written instructions (tax forms, wage documents and the like) and applying these skills in realistic simulations. Addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, fractions, decimals and percents are treated in separate units. Each unit is sequentially ordered from basic facts to the most difficult problems and includes lessons illustrating the interrelationships of the basic arithmetic skills. Diagnostic pre- and post-tests allow the teacher to place each student at his or her own level. For students who read at the 7th or 8th grade level, most of the lessons are well enough explained that the student can progress independently. Because the goals are to teach basic computational skills, that is, arithmetic, many adults feel comfortable with the familiar routine of math class.

Specially Challenged Adults

By special challenges, I mean handicaps, impairments and disabilities. The special challenges our students contend with include old age, developmental disabilities, mental illness, substance abuse, physical handicaps, permanent injuries, chronic diseases and institutionalization.

The aged are the most diverse group of specially challenged adults. Some have vision or hearing impairments. Others suffer from disorientation and the ravages of Alzheimer's disease. Large numbers of older people living in homes for the aged and nursing homes have social deficits. That is, their circle of friends and acquaintances is greatly reduced, family members live far away and seldom visit and new friends are much harder to make. Medications for physical and mental conditions have side effects which make socialization and class work difficult. The math aptitude that older people bring to class varies from individuals who can no longer process numbers or think analytically to retired mathematics faculty.

Math for developmentally disabled people has traditionally focused on maximizing computational skills. For adults who have reached the limit of their arithmetic ability, math classes which emphasize computation can only cover the same ground year after year. Furthermore, the diagnostic-prescriptive tests included in adult math curricula are not useful when no progress is evident. (Cawley, 1984) The students themselves cover a wide range of ability and motivation. More than a few have multiple handicaps, not the least of which are medication side effects. The students do have almost boundless enthusiasm. They will try anything. However, their enthusiasm is not tempered with realistic expectations. Because of their disability, students often cannot verbalize questions they may have. So, to make life easier, they just nod and agree and say they're ready to go on.

Community education serves clients in several agencies of the mental health system. While the most common diagnosis is schizophrenia, a diverse category in itself, we also teach people suffering from character disorders, drug and alcohol abuse, multiple handicaps and borderline diagnoses. Most mental health clients are on some medication regimen. The side effects of these medications range from minor physical symptoms like dry mouth to drug induced inability to even stay awake during classes. One particular characteristic of schizophrenia has great import for designing math curricula - the need to be concrete. Schizophrenics literally can't imagine hypothetical situations. They must be able to feel, see

and be in the problem to deal with it. In terms of the stages of cognitive development, it is as if they were operating at the third stage, concrete operations. Another symptom or characteristic of forms of mental illness and a side effect of some of the medications used to treat the illnesses is an inability to remain focused on the task at hand or to prioritize sensory and mental data. For example, during a lesson on trigonometry, a student began asking for advice about her foster care living situation. People with character disorders have unrealistic goals and expectations which they try to discuss in every class. It is a delicate task for the teacher to explain that one cannot go from A.B.E. math to a job as accountant for a business. All classes at mental health agencies are interrupted by irresponsible behavior ranging from inappropriate comments to intoxication to seizures to hostage crises. As with any group of adults, the range of math aptitude, interest and experience is very wide - A.B.E. to college.

Community Education also runs learning centers for Physically and Otherwise Health Impaired students. People attend who have developmental disabilities, emotional problems, chronic disease such as cerebral palsy and muscular dystrophy, closed-head injuries, paralysis, vision and hearing impairments. The students have a wide range of objectives for themselves and come to the learning center for the individual attention and help they cannot get in their living situations.

All specially challenged students I am describing are institutionalized. They live in nursing homes, adult foster care homes, behavioral treatment homes or supervised apartments. They spend their days at one agency or another for therapy, counseling, vocational training, recreation and education. There are several factors of institutionalization which negatively impact math instruction:

Group membership can distort individual identity. On the one hand, the students say, "We can't do that, we're handicapped." On the other, teachers, trainers, nurses and therapists have limited time for individual attention.

Institutionalized people have limited opportunities for socialization. One of the reasons they sign up for Community Education classes is to increase their social contacts. There is often little incentive for personal challenge. Students will coast through courses and take the easy way out if the teacher lets them. The above mentioned special challenges students face can be so overwhelming that they have neither the desire nor the energy to excel in math class and yet they attend because they must or for the socialization or other reasons.

In the same class, a teacher may have a student for the 4th or 5th year in a row still working at the A.B.E. level and other students who show up for one or two classes and then move on through the bureaucracy. Because Community Education is running classes in host agencies, class time is limited to 1 to 4 hours per week.

These special challenges characterize the adults who are expecting to learn math. They do not match all the features of adult math curricula.

Features of Math Curricula

Diagnostic tests.

Sequentially ordered by content and difficulty
Employment oriented; relevant life skills.

Allow individual progress.

Specially Challenged Adults

Many do not show progress, so such tests give no information. (Cawley, 1984)

Students fail to progress; class attendance varies from occasional to years in class.

The aged have done it already; many specially challenged adults will never live independently.

Students come to class for social reasons; they are less engaged when working independently. (Stevens & Rosenshine, 1981)

Relevant adult math texts are useful only some of the time for some specially challenged adults. For all these students, math as inquiry, the laboratory approach to math, provides a paradigm for math education which reflects the

supposition that mathematics is the result of observation by our sixth sense, the rational imagination. Math as inquiry is characterized by (a) continually relating learning to past experiences while providing new experiences; (b) providing students interesting problems to investigate; (c) setting up a non-threatening environment; (d) allowing students to take responsibility for their own learning.

Research Topics

Many questions arise from this discussion of specially challenged adults and mathematics education.

Are developmentally disabled adults 'frozen' at any particular level of cognitive development? There is a need for large-scale assessments as well as individual testing for classroom use.

Do the aged regress through Piaget's stages? If so, is this an effect of arteriosclerosis, Alzheimer's disease or other impairments?

If training the sense of rational imagination is appropriate for the aged, how can the results of this training be assessed?

Is the need to be concrete for persons suffering from schizophrenia an indication that their neural cognitive development has not progressed beyond the concrete operational stage? Will training the sense of rational imagination have any effects on schizophrenia?

For the physically handicapped individual, does the great difficulty or impossibility of manipulating objects retard his or her cognitive development?

Can adults work on synthesis level objectives with hope of accomplishment even though their special challenges may have heretofore held up their development at a lower stage?

How does one assess adult development of the rational imagination? Alan H. Schoenfeld has been investigating the teaching and evaluation of heuristics. There is some evidence that problem solving skills can be taught and that the training does transfer to unrelated problems.

Political Implications and Conclusion

In Michigan, many programs and activities for specially challenged adults are funded through the State Department of Education. Each year members of the legislature question the value of classes for some groups of citizens. Funding educational services for these students is contingent upon demonstrating first, the validity of the classes offered; second, individual student progress and accomplishment; and third, that students' participation improves their quality of life.

Math curricula which are relevant to real life are not relevant for many specially challenged adults. Guillen's supposition that the rational imagination is a sixth sense for perceiving the world leads to the teaching of math at the synthesis level of Bloom's Taxonomy. Math as inquiry may be an appropriate way to teach math to specially challenged adults, but there are many questions of research and development to be investigated. Fortunately, educators can carry on curriculum research in the classroom and lead our specially challenged adult students beyond their relevant math books and into the realm of rational imagination in the real world.

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COMMITMENT TO ADULT EDUCATION:

HOW CAN WE INCREASE IT?

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Commitment to Adult Education: How Can We Increase It?

Introduction

Adult education programs are largely voluntary (not mandatory). County and community leaders, state legislators and agency personnel, and national congressional and departmental officials have many opportunities to choose whether or not they are committed enough to new or continuing programs to provide grants and budget approvals. Foundations and private businesses also have many options other than adult education and training on which they can expend dollars and support. Finally, and perhaps of most importance, individual learners voluntarily choose to participate or not to participate in planned and offered programs. Thus the level of commitment to adult education by many people, how commitment develops, and how we can enhance it become crucial concerns.

Why do people enacting different roles vary in their level of support for adult education? Why do some individuals place high value on adult education and specific programs, and others do not? Why do certain bodies and individuals place high psychological commitment on the concept and practice of adult education, while others dismiss it?

Answers to the above questions are critical to obtaining adequate resources, to developing high priority programs, and to having high participation in these programs. This paper presents concepts on commitment and data from empirical studies, focusing on the above practical questions and implications for practice.

A Concept of Commitment

Several definitions and assumptions are necessary. 1. Commitment is a hypothetical and abstract psychological construct, anchored in sociological settings (Kiesler, 1971). Commitment binds the individual to behavioral acts; it is a pledge to do something about some object in the future. Commitment increases with (1) the explicitness and public overtness of the behavioral acts; (2) the importance of the behavioral act to the person; (3) the behavior's irrevocability; (4) the number of the person's behavioral acts related to the object; and (5) the degree of freedom perceived by the person in performing the act (Kiesler, 1971).

Many specific objects, acts, ideas, and philosophies relative to which people have or haven't developed a commitment must be studied and understood to know actual commitments. In addition, the program and personal circumstances, or in other words, the present and past behavioral acts of relevant people (e.g., legislators, administrators, teachers, learners, planners), must also be known.

2. Adult education programs are practical sociological settings in which commitment principles can be observed and applied. Adult education consists of many subsystems, all of which are interrelated and operating at various levels of abstraction and specificity. For instance, adult education consists of many institutions providing programs, with each of these institutions' total efforts referred to as a program. More specifically, these institutions such as hospitals, universities, vocational schools, or training and